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GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR USE IN EUROPE AND EURASIA

JANUARY 2016

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Best Practices in Trafficking Prevention in Europe and Eurasia

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Methods and Models for Mixing Services for Victims of Domestic Violence and Trafficking in Persons in Europe and Eurasia

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GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR USE IN EUROPE AND EURASIA

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADS	Automated Directives System
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AOR	USAID Agreement Officer's Representative
CDCS	Country Development Cooperation Strategy
CEC	Central Election Commission
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CEDC	Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances
COP	Chief of Party
COR	USAID Contracting Officer's Representative
CRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
CRPD	United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
CSO	Civil Society Organization
CTIP	Counter Trafficking in Persons
DCOP	Deputy Chief of Party
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DO	Development Objective
DOTS	Directly Observed Treatment Short-course
DPO	Disabled People's Organization
DRG	USAID Democracy, Human Rights and Governance
DV	Domestic Violence
E&E	Europe and Eurasia
ECIS	UNDP Bureau for Europe and Commonwealth for Independent States
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FTF	Feed the Future
FTFMS	Feed the Future Monitoring System
GA	Gender Analysis
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GE/FE	Gender Equality and Female Empowerment
GJD	Governing Justly and Democratically
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GSI	Gender-Sensitive Indicator
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ILOSTAT	International Labour Organisation statistical database
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
IR	Intermediate Result
KILM	Key Indicators of the Labor Market
LEDS	Low Emission Development Strategies
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bi-Sexual and Transgender
LM	Logic Model
LogFrame	Logical Framework
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MDR-TB	Multidrug-Resistant Tuberculosis (resistance to isoniazid and rifampicin)
MIL	Master Indicator List

MOE	Ministry of Education
MSM	Men Who Have Sex with Men
MSME	Micro, Small and Medium-sized Enterprises
NAP	National Action Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NSO	National Statistics Office
NSS	National Security Staff
NTP	National Tuberculosis Program
OMB	Office of Management and Budget
PAD	Project Appraisal Document
PDG	Project Design Guidance
PEPFAR	President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PIRS	Performance Indicator Reference Sheet
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PLWH	People Living with HIV/AIDS
PMP	Performance Monitoring Plan
PMTCT	Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (of HIV/AIDS)
POC	Points of Contact
PWID	People Who Inject Drugs
RF	Results Framework
RFA	Request for Application
RFP	Request for Proposal
SPS	Standardized Program Structure
SSI	Sex-Specific Indicators
Sub-IR	Sub-Intermediate Result
SW	Sex Workers
TB	Tuberculosis
TG	Transgender
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TIP	Trafficking in Persons
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNSC	United Nations Security Council
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USG	United States Government
WEAI	Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index
WHO	World Health Organization
WPS IPC	Women, Peace, and Security Interagency Policy Committee
XDR-TB	Extended MDR-TB

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Reducing gender gaps, promoting equality between the sexes, and empowering women are the focus of many global development initiatives. Since women and men experience development differently, it is critical that projects be developed, monitored, and evaluated with indicators that determine if any gender gaps are closed and if gender equality and female empowerment goals have been achieved. These changes can be documented through the systematic collection of data on the outputs, outcomes and impacts of projects using gender-sensitive indicators (GSIs), including sex-specific indicators (SSIs) and indicators that serve as the basis for collecting sex-disaggregated data. In the Europe & Eurasia (E&E) region,¹ data that has been sex disaggregated has pointed to some changes in gender outcomes, however gender gaps and inequalities persist. By developing a more gender-sensitive approach to data collection (in conducting baseline research, monitoring and evaluating projects), USAID can design interventions that will produce results that are in accord with its Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy (GE/FE Policy).

TOOLKIT PURPOSE

The purpose of this Toolkit is to provide USAID staff in the E&E region and its partners with the tools to design, monitor, and evaluate projects using GSIs that yield data that inform project staff of their progress toward achieving the three overarching outcomes of USAID's GE/FE Policy:

- Reduce gender disparities in access to, control over and benefit from resources, wealth, opportunities and services – economic, social, political and cultural.
- Reduce gender-based violence and mitigate its harmful effects on individuals and communities so that all people can live healthy and productive lives.
- Increase capability of women and girls to realize their rights, determine their life outcomes, and influence decision-making in households, communities and societies.

This Toolkit will also serve as a resource for agency-wide audiences. The Toolkit will be most useful to Gender Advisors/points of contact (POC), development objective (DO) team leaders, and M&E team members within USAID/Washington and Missions.

STRUCTURE OF THE TOOLKIT

The Toolkit discusses why GSIs are integral to achieving the GE/FE Policy outcomes, and is intended to assist Missions and implementers as they work through their results frameworks and performance monitoring plans. The Toolkit defines GSIs and illustrates how they can track progress toward achieving gender-specific outcomes when using the Logic Model (LM) as a framework. Solid gender analysis and use of appropriate GSIs enable Missions and project implementers to link project-level results to Mission-wide strategies and outcomes that close gender gaps and empower women.

GSIs can be developed and applied in almost every development sector. This Toolkit's introduction is followed by 15 guidance Notes that provide detailed information on GSIs in each E&E sector discussed in *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A toolkit for analysis*. The content of the following guidance Notes are organized by typical programming areas but were not developed in response to a

1. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Serbia, Montenegro, and Ukraine.

specific program objective. Twelve provide information on a variety of sub-sectors in the broad fields of democracy and governance, economic growth, health, energy, and the environment, while three address vulnerable groups such as children living outside of parental care, persons with disabilities, and victims of domestic violence. Each Note begins with a discussion of the key gender issues for that sector/topic in E&E and provides a list of sample GSIs to use when designing a monitoring and evaluation plan and system. Developing GSIs requires obtaining basic information about women and men (and girls and boys), gender roles and responsibilities, the extent to which women and men have access to key assets and resources, and the extent to which women and men are represented in decision-making positions. This information is obtained through the gender analyses required in project design.

The Toolkit is divided into four sections:

- **Section 1** presents a brief introduction to the need for GSIs to monitor and evaluate projects in the E&E region.
- **Section 2** reviews USAID's commitment to and requirement for gender-sensitive measurement (indicators) to document project and program results, paying particular attention to the integration of gender at all levels of project implementation and evaluation.
- **Section 3** defines and explains gender-sensitive measurement at all levels – output, outcome, and impact - and provides examples of how the nine USG Standard Foreign Assistance Indicators for gender can measure results in gender equality; female empowerment; women, peace, and security; and gender-based violence.
- **Section 4** constitutes the heart of the Toolkit in that it presents a practical approach and concrete tools for developing GSIs at strategy and project levels in the areas that are currently most relevant to USAID activities in the E&E region. Each of the 15 Notes can also serve as a stand-alone resource.

SECTION I INTRODUCTION

Achieving gender equality and female empowerment is a priority for many developing countries and development agencies globally. Since women and men experience development differently, it is critical that projects be developed, monitored/tracked, and evaluated using indicators to measure progress in achieving targeted gender equality and female empowerment results. These results can be measured through the systematic collection of data on the outputs, outcomes and impacts of projects using gender-sensitive indicators (GSIs), including sex-specific indicators (SSIs) and sex-disaggregated data that serves as the basis for calculating gender gaps and ratios. In the Europe & Eurasia (E&E) region,² sex-disaggregated data point to some positive changes in gender outcomes, but gender gaps and inequalities persist. By developing a more gender-sensitive approach to data collection (and in consistently conducting baseline research and monitoring and evaluating projects), USAID can design interventions that will produce results that are in accord with its Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy (GE/FE Policy).

Another factor that has motivated some governments in the E&E region to focus more on gender equality is the European Union's (EU) requirement for gender mainstreaming among countries that aspire to EU membership. The EU requires formal commitments to gender mainstreaming and regular reporting on gender gaps in education, employment and wages, and decisionmaking roles in national and local governments. Regularly updated information on these gender disparities, therefore, should be available in most, if not all, E&E countries.

I.1. PURPOSE OF TOOLKIT

The purpose of this Toolkit is to provide USAID staff in the E&E region and its partners with the guidance and tools to design, monitor, and evaluate projects using GSIs toward meeting the three overarching outcomes of USAID's GE/FE Policy:

- Reduce gender disparities in access to, control over and benefit from resources, wealth, opportunities and services – economic, social, political and cultural.
- Reduce gender-based violence and mitigate its harmful effects on individuals and communities so that all people can live healthy and productive lives.
- Increase capability of women and girls to realize their rights, determine their life outcomes, and influence decision-making in households, communities and societies.

This Toolkit will also serve as a resource for agency-wide audiences. The Toolkit will be most useful to Gender Advisors/points of contact (POC), development objective (DO) team leaders, and M&E team members within USAID/Washington and Missions.

2. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

Key Definitions³

Gender – A social construct that refers to relations between and among the sexes, based on their relative roles and varies across cultures and over time. It encompasses the economic, political, and socio-cultural attributes, constraints, and opportunities associated with being male or female. Because of the variation in gender across cultures and over time, gender roles should not be assumed but investigated. Note that “gender” is *not* interchangeable with “women” or “sex.”

Gender Equality – concerns the fundamental social transformation, working with men and boys, women and girls, to bring about changes in attitudes, behaviors, roles and responsibilities at home, in the workplace, and in the community. Genuine equality means expanding freedoms and improving overall quality of life so that equality is achieved without sacrificing gains for males or females.

Female Empowerment – when women and girls acquire the power to act freely, exercise their rights, and fulfill their potential as full and equal members of society. While empowerment often comes from within, and individuals empower themselves, cultures, societies, and institutions create conditions that facilitate or undermine the possibilities of empowerment.

Sex – “the classification of people as male or female. At birth, infants are assigned a sex based on a combination of bodily characteristics including: chromosomes, hormones, internal reproductive organs and genitalia”⁴

I.2. ORGANIZATION OF THE TOOLKIT

The Toolkit presents the policy framework for doing gender sensitive measurement by summarizing the policies, strategies, action plans and directives that guide USAID’s work to advance gender equality and female empowerment. The Toolkit goes on to discuss why GSIs are integral to achieving the GE/FE Policy outcomes, and explains how GSI’s can be used to track progress toward achieving gender-specific outcomes in the context of USAID’s overall guidance for doing performance monitoring and evaluation in the program cycle. The toolkit is intended to assist Missions and implementers as they work through their results frameworks and performance monitoring plans. This approach will help Missions and project implementers to link project level GE/FE results to Mission-wide GE/FE outcomes.

GSIs can be developed and applied in almost every development sector. This Toolkit’s introduction is followed by 15 guidance notes that provide detailed information on GSIs in each E&E sector discussed. The content of the following guidance notes are organized by typical programming areas but were not developed in response to a specific program objective. Twelve provide information on a variety of sub-sectors in the broad fields of democracy and governance, economic growth, health, energy, and the environment, while three address vulnerable groups such as children living outside of parental care and persons with disabilities. Each note begins with a discussion of the key gender issues for that sector/topic in E&E and provides a list of sample GSIs to use when designing a Performance Monitoring Plan (PMP) and a monitoring and evaluation (M&E) system. Developing GSIs requires obtaining basic information about women and men (and girls and boys), gender roles and responsibilities, the extent to which women and men have access to key assets and resources, and the extent to which women and men are represented in decision-making positions. This information is obtained through the gender analyses required in project design.

3. USAID, *ADS Chapter 205 Integrating Gender Equality and Female Empowerment in USAID’s Program Cycle* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013).

4. LGBT Center, “Glossary of Terms,” available from <http://www.gaycenter.org/gip/transbasics/glossary>.

The Toolkit is divided into four sections:

- **Section 1** presents a brief introduction to the need for GSIs to monitor and evaluate projects in the E&E Region.
- **Section 2** reviews USAID's commitment to and requirement for gender-sensitive measurement (indicators) to document project and program results, paying particular attention to the integration of gender at all levels of project implementation and evaluation.
- **Section 3** defines and explains gender-sensitive measurement at all levels – output, outcome and impact - and provides examples of how the nine USG Standard Foreign Assistance Indicators for gender can measure results in gender equality; female empowerment; women, peace, and security; and gender-based violence.
- **Section 4** constitutes the heart of the Toolkit in that it presents a practical approach and concrete tools for developing GSIs at strategy and project levels in the areas that are currently most relevant to USAID activities in the E&E region. Each of the 15 Notes can also serve as a stand-alone resource.

I.3. METHODOLOGY OF THIS TOOLKIT

This Toolkit is intended to be a companion document to *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A toolkit for analysis* and is based on a review of USAID and other international development agencies' materials and guidance on GSIs. Information about gender issues in specific sectors was drawn from recent USAID and other publications (academic literature, statistical databases, and analytic reports produced by other organizations and agencies) that have reported on the development and use of GSIs. The Toolkit has a regional focus that reflects a synthesis of data and trends across the countries in the E&E region. When developing GSIs for a project in a specific country, however, Toolkit users will need to carry out further research to articulate the more nuanced patterns of gender-related trends specific to that country. Each note also provides examples of GSIs that are relevant to the overarching gender issues in the sector and the types of programming that USAID supports in each sector, however, Toolkit users will need to customize their indicators to the specific program objectives adopted in each case.

SECTION 2

USAID AND GENDER-SENSITIVE MEASUREMENT

2.1. USAID'S COMMITMENT TO GENDER EQUALITY AND RIGOROUS MEASUREMENT

USAID has long been committed to gender equality and empowering women and girls not only as an issue of basic human rights but also as a necessity for successful, sustainable development. The Agency is concerned with the project outputs and outcomes that lead to the fulfillment of the overarching GE/FE Policy outcomes, and learning the specifics of how these results are achieved. As a result, GSIs are an important element of all project monitoring and evaluation data collection. GSIs measure how women and men have benefited or failed to benefit from a project and how gender relations and gender dynamics have changed as a result of the project.⁵ Five key policies address these issues and are discussed in the following section.

EVALUATION CONCEPTS AND CONSISTENT TERMINOLOGY⁶

To ensure consistency in the use of key concepts, the following terms and classifications from USAID's Evaluation Policy are used.⁷

Impact evaluations measure the change in a development outcome that is attributable to a defined intervention; impact evaluations are based on models of cause and effect and require a credible and rigorously defined counterfactual to control for factors other than the intervention that might account for the observed change. Impact evaluations in which comparisons are made between beneficiaries that are randomly assigned to either a treatment or a control group (randomized control evaluations) provide the strongest evidence of a relationship between the intervention under study and the outcome measured.

Performance evaluations focus on descriptive and normative questions: what a particular project or program has achieved (either at an intermediate point in execution or at the conclusion of an implementation period); how it is being implemented; how it is perceived and valued; whether expected results are occurring; and other questions that are pertinent to program design, management and operational decision making. Performance evaluations often incorporate before-after comparisons, but generally lack a rigorously defined counterfactual.

Performance monitoring of changes in performance indicators reveals whether desired results are occurring and whether implementation is on track. In general, the results measured are the direct and near-term consequences of project activities.

Performance indicators measure a particular characteristic or dimension of project results (outputs or outcomes) based on a project's results framework and underlying theory of change. In general, outputs are directly attributable to the program activities, while project outcomes represent results to which a given program contributes but for which it is not solely responsible.

Performance management (Managing for Results) is the systematic process of monitoring the achievements of program activities; collecting and analyzing performance information to track progress toward planned results;

5. See the presentation made by Dr. Grown in Budapest, Hungary, to USAID gender advisors in the region.

6. USAID, *Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2012), 10, available from https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1865/GenderEqualityPolicy_0.pdf.

7. USAID, *Evaluation. Learning from Experience. USAID Evaluation Policy* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2011), 2, available from <https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1868/USAIDEvaluationPolicy.pdf>.

using performance information and evaluations to influence decision-making and resource allocation; and communicating results to advance organizational learning and communicate results to stakeholders.

2.2. USAID REQUIREMENTS FOR GENDER-SENSITIVE MEASUREMENT

The **Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy** provides guidance about pursuing more evidence-based investments in gender equality and female empowerment at all levels of project implementation and evaluation. Each project must have GSIs that can demonstrate achievement of gender-specific objectives as well as document the progress toward achieving those objectives.⁸ The GSIs developed to ensure fulfillment of the GE/FE Policy also help meet the requirements of the **Evaluation Policy**, which emphasizes accountability, intra- and inter-project and interagency learning.

The **U.S. National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security (NAPWPS)** was designed “to empower half the world’s population as equal partners in preventing conflict and building peace in countries threatened and affected by war, violence and insecurity.”⁹ The White House National Security Staff (NSS) established and chairs an Interagency Policy Committee dedicated to Women, Peace, and Security (WPS IPC), which monitors specific indicators to measure the progress of implementation of the National Action Plan.¹⁰ Activities identified for gender integration include: participation in peace processes and decision-making, protection from violence, conflict prevention, and access to relief and recovery.

The **U.S. Strategy to Prevent and Respond to Gender-Based Violence (GBV) Globally** represents a further-intensified commitment to maintaining USAID’s global leadership in reducing GBV by addressing the root causes of violence, improving prevention and protection services, responding to the health and economic needs of those affected by GBV, and supporting legislation and its enforcement against GBV. USAID’s strategy seeks to address GBV as both a public health and a human rights issue that can impede progress toward development.¹¹

USAID Vision for Ending Child Marriage and Meeting the Needs of Married Children seeks to end child marriage and GBV by cultivating broad partnerships, mobilizing communities to shift norms that perpetuate child marriage, and address the unique needs of married children in USAID programs.¹²

These policy and strategy documents demonstrate the highest Agency commitment to codifying the integration of gender concerns in all aspects of the program cycle. Together, they provide guidance on pursuing more effective, evidence-based initiatives in gender equality and female empowerment, which includes the use of gender-sensitive indicators (discussed in Section 3). By following the steps included

8. USAID, *Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy*, 10.

9. The White House, *United States National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security* (Washington, DC: The White House, 2011), 12-22, available from http://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/email-files/US_National_Action_Plan_on_Women_Peace_and_Security.pdf.

10. United States Department of State, *United States Department of State Implementation Plan of the National Action Plan on Women, Peace, and Security* (Washington, DC: US Department of State, 2012), 23, available from https://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/email-files/US_National_Action_Plan_on_Women_Peace_and_Security.pdf.

11. USAID, *United States Strategy to Prevent and Respond to Gender-based Violence Globally* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), available from http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PDACT888.pdf.

12. USAID, *USAID Vision for Ending Child Marriage and Meeting the Needs of Married Children* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), available from http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PDACU300.pdf.

in ADS 205, Missions and project implementers can meet the overarching GE/FE Policy objectives and explain how they were achieved.

Gender-Sensitive Measurement throughout the USAID Program Cycle

Gender analysis is a mandatory analysis in the development of the **Country Development Cooperation Strategy (CDCS)**, and the results of that gender analysis are then used in developing the **Results Framework (RF)** with associated indicators for its overall goal, development objectives (DO), intermediate results (IRs) and sub-intermediate results (sub-IRs).¹³ The RF should include specific country- and sector-level gender concerns, which should be discussed in the DO and IR narratives along with strategies for narrowing these gender gaps. These should also be accompanied by indicators for tracking identified gender gaps in the monitoring and evaluation framework. Indicators are developed through the use of the **Performance Indicator Reference Sheet (PIRS)**, which specifies the definition of an indicator, plan for data collection, and targets to be achieved in a specific time frame. Because these indicators are defined to fit the goals and context of the results to be achieved, they are termed “custom” indicators, which differ from the nine standard indicators referred to in Section 3. The RF, with its contextualized indicators, is the basis for the implementation of all projects developed within a Mission’s portfolio and articulates with the CDCS through a **Logical Framework (LogFrame)**, utilizing GSIs to integrate gender-based goals. The **M&E Plan** states which GSIs are to be used to monitor implementation and track impacts over the duration of the project. Specific monitoring intervals are spelled out and the data collected on the basis of these GSIs are reported in quarterly and annual reports.

The **Performance Monitoring Plan (PMP)** accompanies the CDCS for each DO. The PMP utilizes performance indicators developed for the RF and are used in monitoring projects to document progress toward meeting (gender-specific) objectives.¹⁴

Project Design Guidance (PDG) describes the linkages between Mission strategic planning, project design, and monitoring and evaluation. It defines guiding principles, outlines the design process and its documentation, and describes the analytical steps that support project design.¹⁵ To generate a gender-sensitive project design, the DO team should conduct a **Gender Analysis (GA)**, which should identify any gender-related obstacles to accomplishing the project’s objectives, recommendations for ways to reduce gender gaps, and opportunities to enhance women’s participation and leadership.¹⁶ The relationship of gender equality and female empowerment to project purpose should be spelled out in the problem statement and reflected in the project design, tracked by indicators, and addressed in the evaluation plan and reporting requirements.¹⁷ The results of the gender analysis should be reflected throughout the Requests for Proposals (RFP) and Requests for Applications (RFA) including: statement of work, project deliverables, key personnel qualifications, M&E and reporting requirements, and technical evaluation/selection criteria for RFPs/RFAs (technical understanding and approach, monitoring and evaluation, and personnel). Further gender analysis by the awardee may be needed after award as well, depending on the specific project.

13. See USAID, *ADS Chapter 205 Integrating Gender Equality and Female Empowerment in USAID’s Program Cycle*, 205.3.3 Gender Analysis in the CDCS Process (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), available at <https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1870/205.pdf> for additional information.

14. See USAID, *ADS Chapter 203 Assessing and Learning*, 203.3.8 Reflecting Gender Issues in Performance Indicators (Washington, DC: USAID, 2012), available at <https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1870/203.pdf> for additional information.

15. USAID, *Project Design Guidance* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2011), 2, available from http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PDACS686.pdf. See also USAID, *How-To Note: Addressing Gender and Inclusiveness in Project Design* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2015), available from <http://usaidlearninglab.org/library/how-note-addressing-gender-and-inclusiveness-project-design>.

16. For guidance on how to conduct a Gender Analysis in all relevant sectors in Eastern Europe and Eurasia, please see: E. Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2012), available from <https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/EE-Gender-Analysis-Toolkit-June-2012.pdf>. For a definition and discussion of a Gender Analysis, see USAID, *ADS Chapter 205*, 7, 12-14, 24.

17. See USAID, *ADS Chapter 205*, 205.3.5 Gender Integration in Solicitations.

SECTION 3 ADOPTING GENDER-SENSITIVE MEASUREMENT

3.1. UNDERSTANDING GENDER-SENSITIVE MEASUREMENT

This section discusses GSIs in general and characteristics of good GSIs, following which the nine USAID standards indicators are presented as output or outcome indicators, which are to be used where appropriate in USAID programming.

WHAT IS A GSI?

Indicators “measure a particular characteristic or dimension of strategy-, project-, or activity-level results based on a Mission’s R/CDCS Results Framework or a Project’s Logical Framework (LogFrame).”¹⁸ GSIs show to what extent and in what ways development programs and projects achieved results related to gender equality and whether and how reducing gaps between males and females and empowering women leads to better project and development outcomes.¹⁹ GSIs can include quantitative or qualitative information and may be developed using participatory approaches (to ensure that they are meaningful in local contexts). They typically require sex-disaggregated data collected over time, and they measure outputs, outcomes, and impacts. GSIs can be used to demonstrate improvements in gender disparities, gender relations, and female empowerment over time, in accordance with the goals and objectives of the project or strategy.

GSIs should be developed in accordance with ADS 203.3.11 Data Quality, which sets data quality standards for all indicators: validity, integrity, precision, reliability, and timeliness. The box below provides some additional guidelines for strong indicators.

Characteristics of Good GSIs

As with all indicators, GSIs should follow these general guidelines:

- 1) **Direct** – actually measures changes that they intend to measure
- 2) **Objective** – clear and unambiguous about what is being measured in terms of gender equality and female empowerment; the GSI will yield the same results on repeated trials/attempts when used to measure outcomes; all terms used in GSIs need to be defined in the PIRS because “common” understandings of often-used terms can be misinterpreted²⁰
- 3) **Useful for Management** – for decision-making on whether the project is on track or if adjustments need to be made
- 4) **Attributable** – can be plausibly associated with USAID interventions to improve gender equality and female empowerment
- 5) **Practical** – be able to utilize locally available resources while at the same time being cost effective
- 6) **Adequate** – taken as a group, are sufficient to measure the stated result in terms of gender equality and female empowerment²¹
- 7) **Disaggregated, as necessary** – are able to show if activities affect men and women differently

18. USAID, *Performance Management Plan (PMP) Toolkit, A Guide for Missions for Planning for, Developing, Updating, and Actively Using a PMP* (Washington, DC: USAID/PPL/LER, 2013), 23, available from <http://usaidprojectstarter.org/sites/default/files/resources/pdfs/PMP-Toolkit.pdf>.

19. USAID, *ADS Chapter 205*.

20. USAID, *Preparing a Performance Monitoring Plan, Tips No. 7* (Washington, DC: USAID, 1996), 2.

21. Adapted from USAID, *Selecting Performance Indicators, Tips No. 6* (2nd ed.) (Washington, DC: USAID, 2010), 4-8.

GSI measuring women's empowerment must be defined for each project as they will take on a different meaning depending on the DO under which the project falls and the specific context in a country or region.

GSI generally fit into one of three categories: sex-disaggregated data, sex-specific indicators (SSIs), or ratios and gap measures. All three are useful in developing a comprehensive understanding of gender within a sector.

Sex-disaggregated people-level data allows for a comparison based on the sex of the beneficiaries. While sex-disaggregated data is very important for highlighting differences in project results for men versus women, or girls versus boys, disaggregating data is a minimal approach to looking at differences between male and female beneficiaries. On its own, sex-disaggregated data usually does not provide information about whether and how gender norms have been transformed as a result of USAID programming. However, data disaggregated by sex is necessary for constructing more sophisticated gender-sensitive indicators.

Examples of Sex-disaggregated Data

- Number of beneficiaries starting their own business as a result of training disaggregated by sex of trainees
- Average agricultural wages for beneficiaries receiving USAID support and training disaggregated by sex, ethnicity, and age
- Number of people in wage employment in non-agricultural sectors disaggregated by sex

Sex-specific indicators are a type of gender-sensitive indicator that measure gender-related project results that are relevant for only males or females. For example, some projects and activities may address important gender issues, but may include only male or female participants. While useful, sex-specific indicators cannot capture information about gender relations or gaps.

Examples of SSIs

- Number of boys who attend school on a regular basis
- Number of female-led firms entering non-traditional markets/sectors
- Percent of decision-making positions in local government/parliament or in local civil services/ministries held by women

Ratios are constructed by taking the number of females involved in a particular activity (e.g., enrolled in primary school) divided by the number of males involved to identify the gender inequalities in said activity. Gap measures, such as absolute number of girls and boys enrolled in school, are generated by subtracting the number of males from the number of females and then expressing this number as $(F - M)/F \times 100$.

Examples of Ratios and Gap Measures

- Ratio of male to female farmers who own the land they farm
- Gap between girls' and boys' enrollment in primary education

As noted above, GSIs can be either quantitative, i.e., numeric with data collected generally expressed in numbers or percentages; or qualitative, i.e., descriptive observations that add a richness of information about the context in which a project has been operating. In most M&E strategies and in PMPs, a combination of these indicators is used.

Some aspects of gender (in)equality are difficult to define and data are not available through direct measurement. In this case, proxy GSIs are developed to measure things that represent (or approximate) changes. For instance, microfinance loans to women are monitored in terms of their effect on increasing women's income. However, female respondents may not be willing or able to provide specific information on income. Hence, a number of other indicators (proxies) have to be used, e.g., number of girls/boys for whom school fees were paid (with income generated from the enterprise); or number and type of assets women purchased for their business or their home, etc. By adding up the costs of each item, an approximate level of income can be ascertained. When comparing data collected in the current reporting period to that of the last, monitoring agents can determine if income has increased or decreased, and estimate whether women's income increased by the same percentage as men's. This is a much more inefficient way of tracking outcomes, but may be necessary when the direct question will not likely produce a direct response.

GSIS AND THE LOGIC MODEL (LM)

The **LM** is a framework that many USAID Missions, donors, project implementers and evaluators use to design, monitor and evaluate the results of each of the activities or steps involved in project implementation. Following a "straight-line" logic – going from inputs to activities, to outputs, to outcomes and to impacts - where success in one step leads to another, it is possible to identify GSIs that will enable the charting of a success model in achieving gender objectives. The LM is structured in the following manner:²²

INPUTS → **ACTIVITIES** → **OUTPUTS** → **OUTCOMES** → **IMPACTS**

Gender-Sensitive Logic Model:

- 1) **Inputs** specify the resources needed (general and gender-specific, according to the goals of the project) to implement the project and to generate gender-specific results. Inputs generally include: financial, human, non-human, infrastructural and institutional inputs. In some cases, sex-specific inputs are required; for example, female teachers to serve as role models for girls in schools.
- 2) **Activities** specify actions associated with project goals (detailed in the RF), i.e., what are the projected activities that will help generate project success? Some activities will be targeted specifically to females while others are more generic but will have gender implications in terms of what the activities actually produce.
- 3) **Output GSIs** measure the direct, immediate, goal-linked gender-specific results achieved by an activity; e.g., a voter education activity holds a community orientation; the output indicator would be number of women/men who attended.
- 4) **Outcome GSIs** measure the medium-term or long-term, goal-related results emerging from the outputs or the actions taken as a result of participation in the activity that generated the output GSIs; in this case the number of women/men who actually vote.

The LM example identifies selected activities, output and outcome indicators (including sex-disaggregated indicators, SSIs, and ratios and gap measures) that illustrate how the flow of activities can result in meeting project objectives. Note, many of these indicators are produced when generating the RF for a project, but others are generated as activity-based outputs, outcomes and impacts. The individual and collective results documented in the data collected are then linked to the overarching outcomes sought through the GE/FE Policy.

22. Adapted from Lisa Wyatt Knowlton and Cynthia C. Phillips, *The Logic Model Guidebook: Better Strategies for Great Results* (2nd ed.) (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc., 2013).

To track changes over time, project and activity implementers should monitor inputs and processes as well as outputs and outcomes. Timely critical reflection on the extent to which inputs are functioning as expected and activities are meeting the needs of male and female participants can reveal unanticipated obstacles and allow for mid-course correction. The data collected for each indicator will help tell the story of the intervention and the progression of its effects – the outputs, outcomes, and over a longer period of time, long-term impact. For example, for a civic training activity, the number of men and women who participate is the output. An outcome may be mobilization of students to become more engaged in their communities in standing up for their rights. Whether or not this student mobilization will continue after training ends will determine the long-term impact and sustainability of the intervention.

3.2. APPLICATION OF GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS

Up to this point, “custom” indicators have been the focus of discussion, i.e., those GSIs that relate to specific activities, outputs, outcomes and impacts. The discussion below refers to nine standard GSIs that are included in the Master Indicator List (MIL).²³ The GSIs include specific indicators to be utilized to measure changes in gender equality, women’s empowerment, gender-based violence, and women, peace and security. These GSIs are designed to measure the results of foreign assistance efforts across program areas in the Standardized Program Structure (SPS).²⁴ It should be noted, however, that the standardized indicators may not fit all situations, thus necessitating the development and use of custom indicators.

Table 1: Classification and Analysis of Nine Standard Foreign Assistance GSIs²⁵

MIL No.	GSI Definition	Type
	Gender Equality and Female Empowerment	
GNDR-1	Number of laws, policies, or procedures drafted, proposed or adopted to promote gender equality at the regional, national or local level	Output
GNDR-2	Percentage of female participants in USG-assisted programs designed to increase access to productive economic resources (assets, credit, income or employment)	Output
GNDR-3	Percentage of females who report increased self-efficacy at the conclusion of USG supported training/programming	Outcome
GNDR-4	Percentage of participants reporting increased agreement with the concept that males and females should have equal access to social, economic, and political opportunities	Outcome
	Gender-Based Violence	
GNDR-5	Number of laws, policies or procedures drafted, proposed, or adopted with USG assistance designed to improve prevention of or response to sexual and gender based violence at the regional, national or local level	Output
GNDR-6	Number of people reached by a USG funded intervention providing GBV services (e.g., health, legal, psycho-social counseling, shelters, hotlines, other)	Output

23. USAID, *ADS Chapter 205*.

24. USAID, *Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy*, 14.

25. USAID has provided on-line assistance in how to incorporate these standard indicators into Project Design, PPRs, MRRs, and OPs. See USAID, *How-To Note: Addressing Gender and Inclusiveness in Project Design*. See USAID, *How-To Note: Addressing Gender Integration in PPRs* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), available from http://usaidlearninglab.org/sites/default/files/resource/files/How_To_Note_Gender_and_PPRs_2013_0719.pdf. See also USAID, *How-To Note: Addressing Gender Integration in MRRs and OPs* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), available from http://usaidlearninglab.org/sites/default/files/resource/files/How_To_Note_Gender_andOPS_and_MRRs_2013_0718_final.pdf.

GNDR-7	Percentage of participants that view Gender-Based Violence (GBV) as less acceptable after participating in or being exposed to USG programming	Outcome
	Women, Peace and Security	
1.3-9	Number of training and capacity building activities conducted with USG assistance that are designed to promote the participation of women or the integration of gender perspectives in security sector institutions or activities	Output
1.6-6	Number of local women participating in a substantive role or position in a peacebuilding process supported with USG assistance	Output

As with the development and use of any indicator, the standardized indicators must “fit” the project objectives and project context, as well as conform to the standards of good indicators.

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SECTION 4

NOTES ON GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS IN 15 E&E PROJECT AREAS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This explanatory background sets the backdrop for the exploration of GSIs in sector-specific projects and activities implemented in the E&E region. The following 15 Notes first discuss the specific gender issues and gaps in each of the areas explored, and then present a number of GSIs that will help monitor or track the progress in closing these gaps and achieving the overarching outcomes of the GE/FE Policy. The information presented should be most useful to Mission gender advisors/POCs, DO team leaders, M&E team members in the E&E region, and USAID/Washington staff members.

These Notes are intended to help USAID Missions design, implement, monitor, and evaluate projects with greater gender sensitivity. With the information and insight provided in *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A toolkit for analysis*, a guide to carrying out gender analysis across multiple sectors in the E&E region, and with the information and insight provided in this Indicators Toolkit, Missions will be fully prepared to launch new project data collection strategies that will be able to document the changes occurring in women's lives in the region, and that demonstrate their achievements in equality and empowerment.

GUIDANCE NOTE I

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR THE AGRICULTURE SECTOR

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES IN THE AGRICULTURE SECTOR

Agriculture activity varies widely across the E&E²⁶ region: from the steeply-terraced fruit and olive orchards of the Balkan Peninsula; to the small, family holdings in the plains of the Caucasus; and extending to the large, commercial wheat-farming operations in Russia and Ukraine. Women, as the majority of non-formal agricultural small family garden producers, provide food security for numerous households hard hit by the economic downturn and political turmoil that has led to widespread unemployment and income loss throughout the region. However, only a relatively small number of women are formally employed in agriculture, and predominantly at the lower end of the value chain. These inter-related issues, along with the prevalence of traditional gender roles, present barriers for women to participate in the formal agriculture sector across the region.

Agriculture Labor: In communist times, women participated in agriculture as collective farm workers, administrative and service sector employees and, to a small degree, as chairpersons of state and collective farms. Following the political transitions and as the sector has mechanized, women's activities have declined from paid to unpaid employment, often as family labor on private farms or backyard gardens.²⁷ The change in how women participate in agriculture has resulted in losses in income, decreased access to benefits, and fewer opportunities to increase income that they previously enjoyed as part of the state run collectives.²⁸

Women in Agriculture Value Chains: Women hired in the agricultural sector are clustered at the lower end of the value chains, occupying jobs that tend to be the most labor-intensive and lowest paying such as crop cultivation and harvesting. The value-added processed and packaged goods agribusinesses provide higher profit margins but employ fewer women and in mainly low-waged factory jobs. Women are also less likely to be involved in the production of high-value commodities, such as organic produce that commands a price premium on the market. The clear division of labor between the sexes within the agricultural and food processing sectors has been promoted through a return to traditionalist attitudes in the region, which relegates women's participation to the lowest levels of employment. Men are more

26. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

27. I. A. Kazakevich and V.A. Pashkevich, "Economic, social and legal status of women in the agricultural sector of the Republic of Belarus," *Economics and Rural Development* (2009).

28. A. Tolstokorova, "Multiple marginalities: Gender dimension of rural poverty, unemployment, and labor migration in Ukraine" (paper presented at FAO-IFAD-ILO Workshop on gaps, trends and current research in gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: differentiated pathways out of poverty Pathways out of Poverty, Gender, and Rural Employment. Rome: March 31- April 2, 2009).

likely to be involved in the higher paying post-harvest occupations such as transportation, marketing, and sales.²⁹

Land Ownership and Access to Credit and Financing: Following the privatization movement throughout the region, many family farms have male heads of household/holdings formally listed as owners.³⁰ Furthermore, men's labor-related out-migration has led to more women-managed farms than may be officially recognized. The lack of official land title in their names can lead to difficulties for women obtaining credit which, in turn, limits their access to resources and equipment to expand into higher levels of the value chains.³¹ In general, women are less likely to own the land they work on and when they do, the size of the parcel owned is significantly smaller than the average farm size owned by men.

Decisionmaking / Leadership / Management: The women in E&E have little involvement with large agribusiness and are more experienced in small family farms and private household plots, except for the few who held higher level agricultural positions during communist times and have not yet retired. Unequal levels of service and information provided to women farmers through extension services where the majority of extension officers are male³² contribute to a lack of resources, skills and information, further restricting women's abilities to expand agricultural production; keeping women-run farms at smaller-sized, less productive levels. Most women in agriculture lack the management and business training needed to expand and formalize their operations into more profitable businesses. They are also limited by their lack of credit and experience making decisions regarding expansion into new productive operations. Comparatively few younger women are enrolling in formal training in agriculture to increase their management and business skills, therefore the number of women in the agricultural sector who are positioned for leadership roles is on a deep decline.

29. Cristina Manfre, Deborah Rubin and Caitlin Nordehn, *Gender Analysis of Agriculture in the Europe and Eurasia Region* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), 5-6.

30. Elisabeth Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2012), 28.

31. World Bank, *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development* (Washington, DC: World Bank, 2011).

32. Tom Hertz et al, "Wage Inequality in International Perspective: Effects of Location, Sector, and Gender" (paper presented at FAO-IFAD-ILO Workshop on gaps, trends and current research in gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: differentiated pathways out of poverty Pathways out of Poverty, Gender, and Rural Employment. Rome: March 31- April 2, 2009).

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR THE AGRICULTURAL SECTOR

Donors such as The World Bank, UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and USAID have all done extensive work regarding gender issues in agriculture in other places around the world; however a core group of globally applicable GSIs that has been universally agreed upon is still lacking. The largest obstacle in the development of meaningful GSIs for agriculture in the E&E region is the lack of sex-disaggregated and gender-related data. Few E&E countries have conducted agricultural censuses recently, and those that have census data do not disaggregate their information by sex. Only Moldova has conducted a national farm survey that collected sex-disaggregated data on men and women in agriculture as part of its Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) compact established in 2009.

Standard indicators may be used to measure what is being accomplished in agriculture with foreign assistance under Program Area 4.5 (Agriculture) under Economic Growth. For each E&E Mission it is important to investigate what sex-disaggregated data are currently being measured that can be further analyzed for additional gender-related agricultural activity.

USAID's work in gender and agriculture is best exemplified by its work in Feed the Future (FTF). Gender integration is one of the six areas of focus of FTF and part of the Feed the Future Monitoring System (FTFMS) is tracking against the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI).³³ The WEAI aims to measure the empowerment and inclusion of women in the agriculture sector in order to overcome obstacles and constraints to their participation. In addition to a Gender Parity Index (GPI), the WEAI measures the roles and extent of women's engagement in the agriculture sector within five domains: (1) decision-making regarding **production**; (2) access to and decision-making power over productive **resources**; (3) control over use of **income**; (4) **leadership** in the community; and (5) **time use**. Although no E&E countries are focus countries, Georgia is an affiliated country. Information on Georgia is reported into the FTFMS as part of mission's monitoring and evaluation M&E activities.

The WEAI can provide useful guidance on areas where programs should aim to reduce gender gaps and support greater women's empowerment. Though it may not be practical for non-FTF missions to develop such a complex data collection structure, the WEAI domains (e.g., production, resources, income, leadership, and time use) correspond to the E&E agricultural gender areas from which project activities and indicators can be developed.

Agriculture Labor: Agriculture programs can strive to offer more gender-equitable opportunities for women in paid employment using indicators such as:

- Jobs created for women in agriculture / agribusiness
- Percentage of women/men in paid versus unpaid employment in agriculture
- Increase in female farm wages / employment / income as a direct result of USAID assistance
- Average agricultural wages for beneficiaries receiving USAID support and training, disaggregated by sex

Role of Women in Agriculture Value Chains: Projects designed to improve women's roles and skills within the agricultural value chains, to help them advance from contributing family members and subsistence

33. For more information on WEAI, see <http://feedthefuture.gov/lp/womens-empowerment-agriculture-index>

farmers to producers, workers, agricultural entrepreneurs, managers and owners of operations, could measure their progress against GSIs such as:

- Change in female farmer headed household income and/or consumption (as a proxy for income), among USG targeted beneficiaries
- Number of beneficiaries who move into higher value agricultural chain employment as a result of USAID initiatives, disaggregated by sex
- Percentage of beneficiaries who move into higher value agricultural chain employment as a result of USAID initiatives, disaggregated by sex
- Percentage of women/men in agricultural managerial/professional occupations as compared to total workforce
- Female farmers changing to value added post-harvest production, high-value crops, marketing, or export as a direct result of USG initiatives
- Number of beneficiaries receiving agricultural training or technical assistance, disaggregated by sex
- Percentage of beneficiaries receiving agricultural training or technical assistance, disaggregated by sex
- Number of beneficiaries applying improved agricultural technologies/practices, disaggregated by sex
- Percentage of beneficiaries applying improved agricultural technologies/practices, disaggregated by sex
- Number of beneficiaries receiving business development services from USG assisted sources, disaggregated by sex
- Percentage of beneficiaries receiving business development services from USG assisted sources, disaggregated by sex

Land Ownership and Access to Credit/Financing: Initiatives can be developed to improve the enabling environment for women-led farms that assists them in procuring official ownership title for the land they work and access to credit and resources. These activities can be measured against GSIs such as:

- Percentage of female/male headed households without official title to land
- Percentage of women/men who receive land titles under USAID projects
- Share of female/male farms able to provide land as collateral for credit as a result of receiving land titles under USAID projects
- Number of female-led farms, holdings, or rural households trained in the credit process with USG assistance
- Amount of credit accessed by female farmers as a result of USG support/assistance
- Number and amount of loans to female farmers receiving USG assistance/support to access credit
- Number of barriers to female land titling and exercise of ownership rights mitigated or eliminated through USG assistance

Decision Making / Leadership / Management: Lack of managerial opportunities to build self-esteem and higher order skills in agriculture can be addressed through training and practical application. Indicators that can measure both the short- and long-term applications of these techniques could incorporate:

- Number of women reporting/demonstrating increased autonomy in agriculture-related decision making/management as a result of USAID-supported training
- Number of female-oriented agriculture organizations, associations, networks, co-ops assisted as part of USAID initiatives

- Number of women attaining management/leadership positions in agriculture as a result of USAID-supported training
- Number of hours of training provided to female farmers through extension services supported by USAID
- Number of female-led farms, holdings, and rural households employing hired/paid labor
- Number of USAID-supported activities in support of female farmers as thought leaders, role models and policy representatives
- Ratio of female to male farmers reporting increased control over income decisions following USG assistance
- Farmers' gross margin per unit of land/animal/crate (etc.), disaggregated by sex
- Number of female farmers making production/land-use decisions as a result of USAID-funded training

Interventions may include activities that assist women in all aspects of the process so that, ultimately, their ability to manage the productivity of their farms will result in increased income and reduced food insecurity, which feeds into the Gender Equality and Female Empowerment (GE/FE) Policy goals. Effective utilization of GSIs shows how interventions can produce the desired program outcomes for all beneficiaries.

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES IN THE AGRICULTURE SECTOR

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GUIDANCE NOTE 2

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR THE ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT SECTORS

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES IN ENERGY, ENVIRONMENT, AND CLIMATE CHANGE

In the E&E region³⁴, USAID energy programs focus primarily on improving the function and output of energy facilities and energy sector reform, as power supplies in many countries of the region are inadequate, and infrastructure is outdated and in need of improvement. USAID environmental programs in the region focus on waste management and recycling, energy efficiency, water management, and the introduction of clean and renewable energy sources.

Women and men have distinct energy and environmental needs that are related to their specific gender roles. As women in the E&E region are typically responsible for household tasks (e.g., cooking, cleaning, laundering, caring for children), as well as for collecting water and fuel, their access to adequate energy, fuel sources, and clean and safe natural resources is an important component of both their ability to carry out household responsibilities, as well as their safety and wellbeing. Men—traditionally responsible for payment of utilities and more likely than women to work in large-scale energy industries (e.g., collection, transportation, and management of natural resources and waste) and in industries linked to environmental degradation (e.g., natural resource extraction)—experience a very different relationship with energy and the environment. As a result, it is necessary to consider gender in energy, environment, and climate change programming in the E&E region.

GENDER, ENERGY, AND NATURAL RESOURCES

Access to modern and efficient energy sources remains a challenge in several E&E countries, particularly in rural areas. In order to complete household tasks, women need adequate access to electricity, clean water, and heating at home; however, women's access to these resources can often be unreliable and/or unaffordable. For example, households in Armenia that rely on fuelwood as their primary source of heating may face difficulties in heating their homes if they are unable to cut trees for firewood or to pay for expensive firewood—an issue that is particularly prevalent in households headed by women and older men.³⁵

Women in the E&E region are more likely than men to be impoverished, especially female heads of household and single mothers, making access to affordable energy service especially important for women.³⁶ Women in the region face reduced access to privatized resources, which may affect their capacity to effectively cover the costs of connecting to the energy grid, buy renewable energy technologies, or invest in more efficient technologies. While women's microenterprise has been

34. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

35. Astrida Niemanis, *Gender Mainstreaming in Practice: A Toolkit* (Bratislava, Slovak Republic, UNDP, 2007).

36. Elisabeth Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis* (Washington, DC, USAID, 2012).

promoted as a means for women to earn additional household income and improve women's economic independence, the majority of these microbusinesses (e.g., food processing) are home-based, and dependent on access to both adequate and affordable energy, as well as energy-efficient equipment. Without secure and steady access to energy at home, women are likely to face challenges in developing a small business.³⁷

Women may face further challenges in securing access to and knowledge of modern and efficient energy sources due to the preconception that work in the energy technology sector is primarily a male activity. In the E&E region, gender differences in field of study has led to occupational segregation,³⁸ with the result being that energy-related fields employ two to four times (or more) as many men as women.³⁹ While current tertiary enrollment in science and engineering has almost equalized in the region (women comprise 46 percent of enrollees⁴⁰), it is not clear whether this shift in enrollment has been equally distributed across all scientific and engineering fields or not, or how it will affect occupational choice in the future. Anecdotal information suggests that the training and vocational institutions for these sectors are male dominant and highly discouraging of women in the business – a culture of harassment, lack of role models and mentors for women, inequitable and inhospitable work environments, including physical conditions and company policies – which pose barriers to women's participation. Many women who start in this field reportedly do not stay because of these issues.

Women are also underrepresented in formal policymaking positions related to energy reform and use of natural resources, as well as in private energy sector institutions. As a result, women are not involved in high-level policy decisions regarding resource management and issues that affect their day-to-day lives.⁴¹

Incorporating gender considerations in the development of large-scale energy infrastructure projects (e.g., maximizing the number of electrical grid connections through targeted financing operations, distributing benefits through gender responsive compensation and shared benefit plans, expanding the labor pool for construction and maintenance operations to include women) can improve the efficiency and positive social and economic impacts of this infrastructure development by making women active participants and benefitting from their networks and unique perspective as energy consumers and those often disproportionately affected by outages.⁴²

GENDER, ENVIRONMENT, AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Women are among the most vulnerable groups to climate change,⁴³ in part due to reduced ability to access finance, technology, and information needed to adapt to climatic variability. Climate change can

37. Niemanis, *Gender Mainstreaming in Practice*.

38. Sarosh Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women: Emerging Europe and Central Asia* (Washington, DC: World Bank, 2012), 10.

39. ILO, Key Indicators of the Labor Market data set (Geneva: ILO, 2015). See Table 4b. Employment by 1-digit sector level (ISIC-Rev.4, 2008; by sex). For example, in Armenia, mining and quarrying employs approximately 9,000 men and 1,000 women. In Azerbaijan, electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply employs approximately 29,000 men and 4,000 women. In Republic of Macedonia, water supply, sewerage, waste management and remediation activities employ over 10,000 men and only 1,000 women.

40. Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women*, 10.

41. Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), *Gender and Environment: A Guide to the Integration of Gender Aspects in the OSCE's Environmental Projects* (Vienna: OSCE, 2009), 6. Accessed November 1, 2014. Retrieved from: <http://www.osce.org/gender/36360?download=true>

42. Wendy Hughes, et al., *Integrating Gender Considerations into Energy Operations* (Washington, DC: Energy Sector Management Assistance Program, 2013).

43. OSCE, *Gender and Environment*, 6.

adversely affect crop yields and food security, water, and fuel supply—all of which are typically the responsibility of women on small-scale, household farms. Women in the E&E region are key stakeholders in small-scale land use management, as they extract and utilize timber and non-timber products for household consumption, and are primarily responsible for water and waste management, as well as the promotion of local products to reduce environmental threats in small communities.⁴⁴ However, women often lack the training and access to land and natural resources to allow them the control over environmental resources they need to support their livelihoods. This hinders their capacity to improve their utilization of natural resources and to generate improved environmental conservation, waste management, and climate change adaptation strategies.

Countries in the E&E region have some of the most carbon intensive economies in the world, accounting for 12 percent of global greenhouse gas emissions.⁴⁵ The adoption of gender-sensitive Low Emission Development Strategies (LEDS) in the region, which are intended to ensure that men and women benefit equally from the development process, provides women with new opportunities to engage in non-traditional roles and professions in the energy and climate change industry, allowing them to also benefit from new economic opportunities.⁴⁶

Similar to circumstances in the energy sector, women are underrepresented in formal policymaking positions related to environmental issues. While women in the E&E region engage in community-level environmental activities—especially as they relate to their ability to carry out household responsibilities—they are underrepresented both in government positions and private sector institutions relevant to the environment and management of natural resources.⁴⁷

Women also tend to migrate less than men, staying behind in areas impacted by climate change to care for their family members. Such was the case of women in Central Asia, who suffered losses to their health and livelihoods when they stayed behind to cope with the impact of the desiccation of the Aral Sea, while their male counterparts migrated to other regions.⁴⁸ Women there have started to develop strategies for adapting to climate change such as switching to drought-resistant seeds, using organic soil, and leading community-based reforestation and restoration efforts.

44. OSCE, *Gender and Environment*.

45. UNDP, “Low emission development strategies.” (UNDP, 2010). Accessed March 21, 2014. Retrieved from: http://www.undp.org/content/rbec/en/home/ourwork/environmentandenergy/Low_emission_development_strategies/

46. Alina Averchenkova, *How-to Guide: Low-emission Development Strategies and Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions: Eastern Europe and CIS* (New York, NY: UNDP, 2010). Accessed March 21, 2014. Retrieved from: <http://www.scribd.com/doc/152636165/Low-emission-development-strategies-and-mitigation-actions>

47. OSCE, *Gender and Environment*.

48. Niemanis, *Gender Mainstreaming in Practice*.

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT SECTOR

Energy and environmental projects typically have established indicators for their development objectives; however, data are not always collected to measure the differences between men's and women's experiences and cannot always be disaggregated by sex. For example, the standard indicator, "Number of households with access to irrigation water for subsistence agriculture," can be made gender-sensitive by recording the sex of the head of household and comparing data from female and male-headed households. Likewise, the indicator, "Number of households with solar panel installed," can be made gender-sensitive by collecting and sorting data according to the gender of the head-of-household, as well as the number of women vs. men in the household who were trained on their use and maintenance. Below are examples of monitoring indicators related to the types of gender gaps found in the energy and environment sectors.

GENDER AND ENERGY⁴⁹

Decisionmaking roles and time burden

- Number of hours required for gathering fuel wood, disaggregated by sex before and after USAID intervention
- Number of female/male headed households with improved heating technologies as a result of USAID intervention
- Number of female/male headed households reporting fewer health issues during winter as a result of improved heating technologies acquired/implemented through USAID intervention
- Number of women using energy-related appliances to reduce time spent on domestic chores as a result of USAID intervention

Awareness of energy issues and technology

- Number of people trained in the use and maintenance of renewable energy technologies through USAID intervention, disaggregated by sex
- Number of people involved in USAID-supported energy-related employment and training, disaggregated by sex
- Number of people made aware of energy technology and efficiency options through USAID programming, disaggregated by sex

Large infrastructure development impact mitigation

- Number of women trained with USAID support in jobs related to construction and operation to improve local income generation related to large infrastructure
- Number of displaced persons trained, compensated or established in alternative livelihoods through USAID-supported activities after construction of large infrastructure, disaggregated by sex
- Number of women who obtain non-traditional jobs in infrastructure after receiving USAID training
- Percentage of resettlement consultations targeted to affected supported by USAID programming
- Percentage of resettlement assessments that credibly address gendered impacts of proposed options supported by USAID programming
- Changes in reported income for displaced/resettled persons, disaggregated by sex

49. Indicators modified from Hughes, et al., *Integrating Gender Considerations into Energy Operations and ENERGIA, Mainstreaming Gender in Energy Projects*, Resource 8.1, 2011.

GENDER, ENVIRONMENT, AND CLIMATE CHANGE*Waste management*

- Number of women/men engaged in waste management at household level
- Number of hours per day spent on tasks related to traditional disposal of waste, disaggregated by sex
- Number of hours in a day women perform tasks related to waste disposal using new, labor-saving technology as a result of USAID programming, disaggregated by sex

Water management and water quality

- Number of people trained in water quality assessment with USAID support, disaggregated by sex
- Number of hours per day dedicated to water collection, disaggregated by sex

Access to opportunities in non-traditional fields⁵⁰

- Number of women receiving technical training on non-traditional jobs in energy/environment sector with USAID support
- Number of women in decisionmaking positions within the [climate change, energy, environmental] institution, after receiving USAID training
- Number of women with increased income as a result of job in technology-related sector
- Number of women in decisionmaking positions related to energy/ environment/ climate change

Climatic impact on livelihoods and traditional roles of women and men

- Number of people consulted on their livelihood needs related to climate change through USAID programming, disaggregated by sex
- Number of people trained in adaptive strategies [e.g., sustainable agriculture, water management, etc.] with USAID support, disaggregated by sex
- Number of people who increase their incomes during time made free as a result of using new, labor-saving technologies adopted through support of USAID programming, disaggregated by sex

50. Modified: Hughes, et al., *Integrating Gender Considerations into Energy Operations*.

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES FOR ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT INDICATORS

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GUIDANCE NOTE 3

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR ELECTIONS AND POLITICAL PARTY PROCESSES

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES AND GAPS IN ELECTIONS AND POLITICAL PARTY PROCESSES

In many countries in the E&E region,⁵¹ women face numerous challenges to political participation and lack a voice at the national level and frequently at the local level as well. While all of the countries in the E&E region have formally committed to promoting gender equality and combating gender discrimination, operationalizing these principles has proven to be a challenge, especially in the area of political processes – from exercising basic rights to being elected or appointed to high political offices. Today, there remain a number of gaps that are of particular concern in the region.

Women are not freely exercising the right to vote. In some countries in the region, some women do not freely exercise the right to vote. Though no significant regional gender-based voting constraints have been reported, there have been reported examples of male family members influencing the voting of females. This has been documented in cases of family voting (when voting decisions are made by a male family member on behalf of all the female family members) and proxy voting (when someone else votes on a person's behalf). Such practices have been documented in Azerbaijan, Georgia, and the Republic of Macedonia.⁵² These practices prevent women from exercising their right to vote according to their conscience and therefore curtail their participation in political processes.

Women face gender-specific social and economic barriers to participating in political processes. Historically women have been excluded from the political and decision-making arenas due to “deep-rooted social, cultural, and institutional biases.”⁵³ Gender norms regarding the household division of labor result in women having the vast proportion of care responsibilities for children and disabled relatives, coupled with domestic responsibilities like cooking and cleaning. Expectations that they fulfill these responsibilities first, coupled with the substantive burden of time women spend working in paid employment prevent many women from gaining the skills needed to succeed in electoral politics, such as networking, leadership, and coalition building.⁵⁴ Engrained social norms can also make it more difficult for women to ask for money, gain fundraising experience, and compete against male competitors. In many instances, women would face social sanctions for entering common settings for

51. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

52. E. Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis* (Washington, DC: 2012). Retrieved from http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnaea292.pdf

53. R. Waterhouse and S. Neville, *Evaluation of DFID Development Assistance: Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment, Phase II Thematic Evaluation: Voice and Accountability* [Working Paper 7] (London, UK: DFID, 2005), 15. Retrieved from <http://www.amarc.org/documents/books/wp7.pdf>

54. Duban and JBS International. *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*.

informal networking (e.g., coffee bars, saunas) where men often congregate and make important decisions, since their communities view them as places for men and (sometimes) “immoral” women.⁵⁵ In these contexts, women candidates need to develop alternative networking systems. Women’s lack of resources and access to capital due to gender inequality and unequal distribution of income, in addition to gender biases in the labor markets make it more difficult for women to fund political campaigns.⁵⁶ Women are also faced with deep-seated patriarchal values: in addition to being expected to fulfill the majority of the household duties on top of any external job, there are many aspects of politics that are still considered ‘men’s issues.’ The UNDP reported that almost half of all women in EU countries who succeeded in becoming ministers were assigned to socio-cultural functions⁵⁷ with men dominating defense and economic portfolios. The media also plays a role in perpetuating the barriers to women’s participation by not providing equal coverage for female candidates, reinforcing stereotypes about women and leadership, and not sufficiently reporting violent crimes against women in politics, which remain under-documented and underreported. The UNDP reports the “root causes of violence against women in politics include persisting cultural stereotypes, abuse of religious and traditional practices, patriarchal societal structures, and the role women have historically played as the followers of male leaders.”⁵⁸ These conditions have made it difficult for women to win political office in any significant numbers or to achieve cohesion to advocate for the interests of women.

Gender quotas and affirmative action policies within political parties are being developed in the region, but further reform is needed. The status of women in political parties in the E&E region is in flux. The UNDP Bureau for Europe and Commonwealth for Independent States (ECIS) reported a lack of political party support for women party candidates, though women are often active in political parties, “campaigning and mobilizing support... they rarely occupy decision-making positions.”⁵⁹ Political parties often recruit women to work on election campaigns, but they are typically portrayed as “having little political knowledge, political experience or skills. This creates an unfavourable environment for women’s political participation and gender equality... [resulting in] few [who] are able to move into positions of power.”⁶⁰ A number of countries in the region – Albania, Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro, and Serbia - have some form of quota system that requires political parties to include female candidates on their party lists.⁶¹ Initiatives like these, along with electoral system reforms (such as proportional representation), have had varying levels of success.⁶² For example, as of 2012, women in only two countries, Kosovo and the Republic of Macedonia, had successfully secured as much as 30 percent of parliamentary seats. In a number of cases, even after a party has adopted a quota system for placing women on party candidate lists, and women have succeeded in winning elections,

55. Duban and JBS International. *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*.

56. Waterhouse and Neville, *Evaluation of DFID Development Assistance*.

57. UNDP Regional Office for Central Europe and CIS, *Enhancing Women’s Political Participation: A Policy Note for Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States* (Bratislava, Slovakia: UNDP, 2010). Retrieved from <http://www.undp.ro/download/Enhancing%20Women%20s%20Political%20Participation.%202009.pdf>

58. UNDP Regional Office for Central Europe and CIS, *Enhancing Women’s Political Participation*, 20.

59 J. Ballington and A. Karram (eds.), *Women in Parliament: Beyond the Numbers, A Revised Edition* [International IDEA Handbook Series] (Stockholm, Sweden: International IDEA, 2005), 37. Retrieved from http://www.idea.int/publications/wip2/upload/WiP_inlay.pdf

60. UNDP Regional Office for Central Europe and CIS, *Enhancing Women’s Political Participation*

61. The Quota Project, *Global Database of Quotas for Women* (Stockholm, Sweden: [International IDEA](http://www.quotaproject.org), Inter-Parliamentary Union and Stockholm University, 2014). Retrieved from www.quotaproject.org

62. F. M’Cormack, *Helpdesk Research Report: Evaluations of interventions impacting women’s political participation* (London, UK: DFID, 2012). Retrieved from: <http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HDQ778.pdf>

their parties have then replaced them with male members of the same party following the election. Though the quota system remains somewhat controversial with differing opinions on whether it leads to long-term change,⁶³ there are lessons to be learned from its implementation. From the Bosnian implementation, a key takeaway is if a quota system is used, it should be accompanied by other initiatives such as “support to women in election campaigns, education of women on how to lead their campaigns, support to media to pay more attention to women candidates, and voter education.”⁶⁴ It should also be noted that political parties’ structures play an important role. In some cases, subsections of parties have formed women’s caucuses, or women-only parties. These bodies can be effective to help rally women members’ support for gender equality-focused initiatives and influence over party platforms. They can also create internal networks and help women overcome barriers to leadership.⁶⁵ In some E&E countries, the rise of nationalist movements that promote traditional gender roles and glorify women’s reproductive roles over public leadership or employment has undermined the intent of quotas to empower women politically and sends the message that quotas are merely a cosmetic policy, rather than part of a serious commitment to gender equality.⁶⁶

Women are underrepresented in elected office and lack the “critical mass”⁶⁷ to influence decision making. In most E&E countries, women’s representation is less than 20 percent in national legislatures⁶⁸ which are the highest levels of elected office, well below the 30 percent target of the Beijing Platform for Action. While statistics on women’s representation in national elected offices is widely available, information on their success in local elections is not. Central and district election commissions are the best sources of information for that, and many in the region do not analyze the results to provide information on gender gaps in local representation, and much of the information that may be available in local languages is not available in English. Bosnia and Herzegovina is one exception though, and it demonstrates that women continue to have difficulty winning local elections as well as national elections. In the 2012 local elections, women comprised just under 36 percent of all candidates, but only approximately 16 percent of those elected.⁶⁹ In many E&E countries, women’s representation in leadership positions decreases as the level of political office rises.⁷⁰ In the majority of E&E countries, women have low representation in legislative bodies. In 2009 in Georgia and Albania, women had approximately six to seven percent of seats in national parliament; in Armenia they held around nine percent. The ECIS reported that “no country in the ECIS region has achieved gender balance in high-level decision-making bodies.”⁷¹ In

63. Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Increased Women’s Political Participation Still Dependent on Quotas, 2012 Elections Show* [Press Release], (Geneva, Switzerland: Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2013). Retrieved from <http://www.ipu.org/press-e/pressrelease20130305.htm>

64. UNDP Regional Office for Central Europe and CIS, *Enhancing Women’s Political Participation*.

65. UNDP Regional Office for Central Europe and CIS, *Enhancing Women’s Political Participation*.

66. Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia*.

67. Critical mass theory states that “women cannot have a major impact on legislative outcomes until they move from a few token individuals to a considerable minority of all legislators” (S. Childs and M.L. Krook, “Critical Mass Theory and Women’s Political Representation,” *Political Studies* 56 (2008), 725-736. Retrieved from: http://mlkrook.org/pdf/childs_krook_2008.pdf). It is useful to note that some scholars reject critical mass theory, noting that women politicians are sometimes more cohesive and effective as a small minority.

68. Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia*.

69. Bosnia and Herzegovina Central Election Commission, *Election Indicators 2002-2012* (Sarajevo: Bosnia and Herzegovina Central Election Commission, 2012). Retrieved from: http://www.izbori.ba/Documents/Statistika_i_rezultati_izbora/Statistika_izbora/Izborni_pokazatelji2002-2012-eng.pdf

70. Bosnia and Herzegovina Central Election Commission, *Election Indicators 2002-2012*.

71. Ballington and Karram, *Women in Parliament: Beyond the Numbers*.

addition, a current snapshot shows that women are not equally represented on central election commissions (and likely district election commissions as well) in many countries in the region, ranging from nine percent of members in Moldova and Kosovo to 43 percent in Albania and Armenia.⁷²

Dominant party politics often fail to include women's rights and gender equality in their platforms. Legislative women's or gender equality caucuses, which might counter this tendency, are only currently found in six of the E&E countries.⁷³ Even in cases where they do exist, if the political environment is highly polarized, elected women may be more likely to act in the interests of their respective parties than to use the women's caucuses as a base from which to pursue independent (non-party) agendas focusing on issues of gender equality. Although there is no definitive evidence that larger proportions of women in legislatures leads to stronger advocacy for women's empowerment or gender equality, it is safe to assume that low proportions of women within party caucuses and the overall legislative voting bloc do not provide a strong base for identity-based or issue-based advocacy among women. This is a significant problem in the promotion of gender equality, which is frequently seen as a "women's issue," and therefore not a priority of male politicians.⁷⁴ Men's dominance within party politics also contributes to the dominance of a narrow political conception of "gender issues," limited, for example, to promotion of women in paid employment, but excluding domestic violence, LGBT rights, and gender stereotyping in education as legitimate or pressing political issues to address. Civil society organizations therefore play a critical role to try to incorporate women's needs and perspectives in policy, helping to facilitate knowledge sharing and joint planning among the few women that do hold government offices in an effort to further gender equality.⁷⁵

72. Calculated from information available on central election commission websites for each country in the region.

73. Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Republic of Macedonia, Serbia, and Ukraine. Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Database on Women's Caucuses* (Geneva: Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2015). Retrieved from: <http://w3.ipu.org/en/search/results/eyJjb2xsZWV0aW9uIjoic3YydmV5liwicmVzdWx0X3BhZ2U0iOjZWFyY2hcL3Jlc3VsdHMlLClzZWV5Y2hfbW9kZSI6ImFsbCIsInNlYXJjaDpjZl9zdXJ2ZXlfaGFzX3dvdWVucI9jYXVjdXMiOjI5ZXMlLClzZWV5Y2g6Y2Zfc3VydMv5X3JlZ2lvbil6ImVlcm9wZSJ9P10>

74. Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia*.

75. UNDP Regional Office for Central Europe and CIS, *Enhancing Women's Political Participation*.

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR ELECTIONS AND POLITICAL PARTY PROCESSES

Standard foreign assistance indicators on political processes measure the progress of USAID programs and projects,⁷⁶ and the majority of these indicators can be disaggregated by sex or type of organization (men-led vs. women-led) where applicable. However, GSIs are necessary to better understand and capture any changes caused by the project activities in terms of women's participation in political processes – as political party representatives, voters, or public decision makers. While election-related data is generally publically available, several of the indicators below rely on political parties providing data that would not be available in the public domain. It is important to note that record keeping capacity and privacy policies vary, and it can be difficult to obtain information from political parties on their members, and these factors should be taken into account when developing indicators.

When developing indicators it is also important to consider linkages among electoral and political party processes, civil society, and governance. The majority of political participation projects will work with the civil society and governance sectors to some extent, especially those focused on increasing citizens' political engagement. Therefore it is helpful to consult best practices guides and other sources of common programming strategies from all three areas in order to identify a good range of useful indicators.⁷⁷ This is especially the case, for example, when collecting information on women's participation in governing bodies at all levels.

Free exercise of the right to vote

- Percent of election officials and observers receiving USAID-funded training on individual voting and gender issues related to exercising right to vote, disaggregated by sex
- Number of people receiving literature and other informational products through USAID-supported campaigns promoting the importance of individual voting in targeted communities supported by the project, disaggregated by sex
- Percent change in number of women who voted after attending voter education events supported by USAID interventions
- Number of instances of observed family and/or proxy voting, disaggregated by geographic area

Reduction in gender-specific social and economic barriers or development of alternative strategies to facilitate women's participation in political processes

- Change in ratio of hours spent by women on unpaid household labor to hours spent by men on unpaid household labor after USAID program intervention
- Percent increase in agreement (among groups targeted by outreach campaigns) with the statement that men and women should share household work equally, disaggregated by sex
- Percent increase in agreement (among groups targeted by outreach campaigns) with the statement that women and men are equally capable of serving in public office, disaggregated by sex

76. The complete list of political processes indicators is featured under *Objective 2: Governing Justly and Democratically*, Political Competition and Consensus Building (Elections and Political Processes (GJD 3.2) and Political Parties (GJD 3.3)), in U.S. Department of State, “*Governing Justly and Democratically Indicators and Definitions Hand book Guidance Annex 3*” (n.d.). Retrieved from: <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/78561.pdf>

77. All indicators should be disaggregated by vulnerable group status and geographic location.

- Percent increase in agreement (among groups targeted by outreach campaigns) with the statement that social issues concern men and women equally, disaggregated by sex
- Percent increase in agreement (among groups targeted by outreach campaigns) with the statement that national defense concerns women and men equally, disaggregated by sex
- Number of female politicians trained in fundraising by a USAID project

Further reform of political party systems and processes to be more inclusive

- Number of female party representatives achieving more than 50 percent approval ratings
- Number of political parties providing financial incentives and aid to female party candidates
- Number of political party membership campaigns directed towards women, including minority women or other marginalized groups
- Legislation passed or statutory reforms undertaken to improve gender equality in politics (qualitative assessment)

Representation in political office and influence on decisionmaking

- Percentage of total as well as male and female population targeted by USAID advocacy efforts who report increased acceptance of women's participation in politics
- Proportion of increase in the numbers of women who run for a given type of office from the elections immediately preceding the USAID program intervention to the elections following the program intervention
- Percentage of women candidates (out of all women who run) successfully elected to office, after receiving support or training from a USAID program
- Ratio of male to female party candidates
- Percent change of women in leadership positions at the municipal level out of the total number of leadership posts

Increased coalition building among female politicians

- Number of local-level coalitions established by women politicians benefitting from USAID-sponsored training
- Number of national-level coalitions established by women politicians benefitting from USAID-sponsored training
- Number of female party candidates reporting improved skills for political leadership (such as coalition building, fundraising, etc.) after participating in USAID-supported programming
- Number of initiatives or events (e.g., fact finding missions, roundtables, public-private partnership building), sponsored by women politicians benefitting from USAID-sponsored training, that bring together politicians around women's interests and across party lines
- Percentage increase in the number of pieces of legislation or party platform items proposed and/or co-sponsored by multiple women
- Proportion of issues discussed in the legislature that members define as women's or gender issues⁷⁸
- Number of women politicians trained in networking by a USAID project

78. Lorraine Corner, *Gender-sensitive and Pro-poor Indicators of Good Governance* (New York, NY: UNDP, 2005). Retrieved from: http://omec.uab.cat/Documentos/mitjans_dem_gov/0098.pdf

PART 3 – KEY RESOURCES FOR ELECTIONS AND POLITICAL PARTY PROCESSES

ACE Electoral Knowledge Network website. <http://aceproject.org/regions-en>

Democracy and the Challenge of Change: A Guide for Increasing Women’s Political Participation. NDI, 2011. Retrieved from: http://www.ndi.org/files/Democracy_and_the_Challenge_of_Change.pdf

Enhancing Women’s Political Participation: A Policy Note for Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States. UNDP Europe and CIS, 2010. Retrieved from <http://www.undp.ro/download/Enhancing%20Women%20s%20Political%20Participation,%202009.pdf>

Gender Equality & Election Management Bodies: A Best Practices Guide. Sarah Bibler, Vasu Mohan, & Katie Ryan, 2014. Retrieved from: https://www.ifes.org/sites/default/files/gender_equality_and_emb_best_practices_guide_final_2.pdf

Gender-sensitive and Pro-poor Indicators of Good Governance. Lorraine Corner, 2005. UNDP Oslo Governance Centre and Indian Council for Social Science Research (ICSSR) International workshop on engendering and empowering governance indicators, New Delhi, April 2005. New York: UNDP. Retrieved from http://omec.uab.cat/Documentos/mitjans_dem_gov/0098.pdf

Handbook on Promoting Women’s Participation in Political Parties. OSCE, 2014. Retrieved from <http://www.osce.org/odihr/120877?download=true>

International Knowledge Network of Women in Politics website. www.iknowpolitics.org

Inter-Parliamentary Union’s Women in National Parliaments database. Retrieved from <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>

Quota Project: Global Database of Quotas for Women, International IDEA, Inter-Parliamentary Union and Stockholm University. Retrieved from <http://www.quotaproject.org/index.cfm>

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GUIDANCE NOTE 4

GENDER AND GOVERNANCE IN THE E&E REGION

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES/GAPS IN GOVERNANCE

Much of USAID democracy and governance programming in the E&E region⁷⁹ is designed to enhance the capacity of national governments to respond to the needs of their citizenry. Improving the ability of governments to mainstream gender or design processes and policies that systematically account for the specific needs and interests of women and men and the diversity of experiences among them is a fundamental contribution to their overall responsiveness. Though it may be agreed that men and women often have different needs in particular domains, women's perspectives and input have historically been underrepresented in government decisions. The integration of gender perspectives in policy formulation processes has been insufficient and ineffective.⁸⁰ While all of the states in the E&E region have formally committed to promoting gender equality and combating gender discrimination, operationalizing these principles has proven to be a challenge. Today, there remain a number of gaps that are of particular concern in the region, and while countries in the E&E region have recognized the need for gender equality and established government bodies and policies, the implementation and enforcement of such policies is generally lacking.

Women's Representation in Government and Civil Service at the National and Local Levels. One measure of gender responsive governance is the extent to which women are represented in the civil service at the national and local levels. As calculated by the ILO, the number of women in public sector employment exceeds that of men in most countries in the region for which data are available,⁸¹ in spite of which, women are comparatively less likely than men to be represented in higher-level decision-making positions within government in both the civil service and in appointed positions at the local and national levels. In eleven of the countries in the region, women hold an average of 13.7 percent of the ministerial positions (no data were available for Kosovo).⁸² Though women's representation increased in several

79. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

80. UNDP Europe and CIS, *Enhancing Women's Political Participation: A Policy Note for Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States* (Bratislava, Slovakia: UNDP, 2010), 1. Retrieved from <http://www.undp.ro/download/Enhancing%20Women%20s%20Political%20Participation,%202009.pdf>

81. Data are available for Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, and Serbia from ILO. "Share of Employment in the Public Sector by Sex" (2013 data). Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/ilostat/faces/help_home/data_by_subject/subject-details/indicator-details-by-subject?subject=PSE&indicator=EMP_XPSS_SEX_RT&datasetCode=YI&collectionCode=YI&_afzLoop=255686412658355#%40%3Findicator%3DEMP_XPSS_SEX_RT%26subject%3DPSE%26_afzLoop%3D255686412658355%26datasetCode%3DYI%26collectionCode%3DYI%26_adf.ctrl-state%3D10vdigyo7z_305. Data as reported by national governments are categorized differently and may not be comparable. Data from the State Statistical Committee of Azerbaijan indicate that public sector employment is dominated by men (<http://www.stat.gov.az/source/labour/indexen.php>), as do the data available from Georgia's National Statistics Office (http://www.geostat.ge/cms/site_images/files/english/health/women%20and%20men-2013.pdf) and Bosnia and Herzegovina's Institute for Statistics for the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina (http://www.fzs.ba/god_bilteni/SB-218Zap.pdf).

82. Inter-Parliamentary Union & UN Women, *Women in Politics: 2015* (Geneva: IPU, 2015). Retrieved from http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/wmmmap15_en.pdf.

countries since 2010, including Albania, Moldova, Belarus, Georgia, Montenegro, and Ukraine, in other countries such as Bosnia and Herzegovina and Azerbaijan, women generally remain vastly underrepresented in such positions.⁸³ Further, with few exceptions, those women tend to be concentrated largely in the areas of government that are associated with women's traditional gender roles, such as child welfare and education.⁸⁴

Moving from Policy to Practice: Inclusion of Women in Formal Decision-Making and Peace Processes.

Since signing the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) Resolution 1325 in 2000, all signatories were called upon to increase the representation of women in peacebuilding and conflict-resolution activities and urged to incorporate gender perspectives in all peace and security efforts, along with protection of women and girls from abuse.⁸⁵ A number of countries in the region have taken steps toward putting such changes in place. As of 2013, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, the Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, and Serbia had either passed a National Action Plan (NAP),⁸⁶ formalizing the country's plan in response to UNSC 1325 or were in the process of doing so. However, these NAPs vary widely in the level of accountability and likelihood of effectiveness. Some countries, such as Serbia, allocated no budget to the NAP, making the required coordination extremely difficult without dedicated funding.⁸⁷ This is an example of how NAPs may serve as policy documents lacking clear paths for implementation. In most cases where governments have adopted NAPs, it is too early to evaluate their impact. Countries went through their own processes to develop NAPs (e.g. involving women's CSOs and broader feedback). Those NAPs resulting from a more inclusive process with CSOs involved have "a better chance of being implemented."⁸⁸ While many governments in the region have passed NAPs and/or have policies for greater participation of women in conflict prevention and peacebuilding activities, there have not been demonstrable increases in participation of women in formal decision-making and peace processes.⁸⁹

Engagement of CSOs Advocating Gender Equality in Policy and Reform. While governments in the region often seek out the expertise of women's CSOs on issues that are considered to have a direct impact on women, they are much less likely to seek out their input on a broader array of issues outside the realm of those traditionally associated with women (e.g., financial reform, energy, etc.).⁹⁰ In addition, many organizations dedicated to addressing sector-specific issues like energy and financial reform assume gender neutral approaches to their work, which may miss significant differences in the impact of reforms

83. Author's calculation. Calculated from Inter-Parliamentary Union & UN Women, *Women in Politics: 2010* (Geneva: IPU & UN Women, 2010). Retrieved from http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/wmnmmap10_en.pdf

84. Elisabeth Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis* (Washington, DC: 2012). Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnaea292.pdf

85. Office of Special Advisor of Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI), *Landmark Resolution on Women, Peace and Security* (New York, NY: United Nations, n.d.). Retrieved from <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/wps/>

86. To view sample NAP for Bosnia & Herzegovina visit http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/bosniaherzegovina_nationalactionplan_2010.pdf

87. European Peacebuilding Liaison Office, *UNSCR 1325 in Europe: 20 Case Studies of Implementation* (Brussels, Belgium: European Peacebuilding Liaison Office, 2013). Retrieved from http://eeas.europa.eu/archives/features/features-working-women/working-with-women/docs/epl0-20-case-studies_en.pdf

88. European Peacebuilding Liaison Office, *UNSCR 1325 in Europe: 20 Case Studies of Implementation*, I.

89. OSCE Secretariat, OSG/Gender Section, *OSCE Study on National Action Plans on the Implementation of the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325* (Vienna, Austria: OSCE, 2014). Retrieved from: <http://www.osce.org/secretariat/125727?download=true>

90. Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia*.

on men and women. The combination of a dearth of women holding posts in government with a lack of involvement of women's CSOs on the majority of decision-making issues highlights the fact that women's perspectives are truly not represented in the policy and reform arena.

Corruption and Gender. Corruption is still a problem in many countries throughout the E&E region.⁹¹ Though anti-corruption initiatives have been established, they remain largely gender neutral. Corruption takes many forms, and the Anti-Corruption Resource Centre (an initiative of nine bilateral international development agencies based in Bergen, Norway) notes how corruption has evolved to include trafficking and sexual extortion, forms that disproportionately impact women and girls. The gendered impacts of corruption break down into “three categories: access to decision-making power, protection, and the advancement of rights and access to resources.”⁹² Transparency International expands the list of reasons why women and girls are more vulnerable to corruption, adding that women are “the primary users of public services” and often lack a voice to enable their participation around delivery of services – women more often come into contact with public officials who may demand some form of payment for services.⁹³

91. Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia*.

92. Farzana Nawaz, “State of Research on Gender and Corruption,” *U4 Expert Answer* (Jun 24, 2009). Retrieved from <http://www.u4.no/publications/state-of-research-on-gender-and-corruption/>

93. Transparency International, *Corruption and Gender in Service Delivery: The Unequal Impacts* [Working Paper No. 2] (Berlin, Germany: Transparency International, 2010), 3. Retrieved from http://www.transparency.org/whatwedo/pub/working_paper_02_2010_corruption_and_gender_in_service_delivery_the_unequal

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR THE GOVERNANCE SECTOR

The representation of women in government, and particularly in sectors of the government not traditionally associated with women, can provide an important insight into how well women are mainstreamed in government. Evaluating government progress to increase women's presence in formal decision-making and peace processes will require analyzing changes in national laws, policies, and directives undertaken with the intention to expand women's participation in these processes such as the introduction of quotas for women's participation or the introduction of special envoys. Collecting and analyzing data that capture the movement of women (and men) into sectors where they have been traditionally underrepresented will be important. Both quantitative and qualitative indicators will be needed to measure progress towards addressing each of these discrete gender and governance issues. Key sources of data will include government statistics; laws, policies, and regulations; and primary data on the implementation of laws and policies and the delivery of services. When developing GSIs, it should be kept in mind that they should be able to illustrate a "path" to the intervention's potential success.

Women's Representation in Government and Civil Service⁹⁴ and Inclusion of Women in Formal Decision-Making and Peace Processes

- Number of beneficiaries of USAID-supported technical assistance activities to attract, retain, and advance women and men into sectors of the civil service where they have traditionally been underrepresented, disaggregated by sex and sector
- Number of USG-sponsored training, mentorship or professional support activities that are conducted to increase the promotion of female civil servants in the national civil service
- Percentage of female beneficiaries who report aspiring to high-level decision-making positions in local and national government after participation in USAID project or training
- Percentage of women civil servants participating in training and capacity building activities who receive promotions in the national civil service
- Percentage of envoys, mediators, negotiators, technical experts, signatories, witnesses, and observers in formal peace negotiations participating in USG sponsored capacity building activities who are women
- Qualitative assessment of analyses or reviews of the civil service codes and policies conducted by government oversight agencies and CSOs to identify and reduce obstacles to women's entrance into and equal participation in the national level civil service
- Qualitative assessment of progress toward implementation of a National Action Plan (NAP) that includes gender-sensitive policies
- Number of laws, policies, or directives adopted with USG support that are designed to promote to increase the representation of women in formal decision-making around peace and peace processes

Women's CSOs Engagement in Policy and Reform

- Number of government offices in traditionally male-dominated sectors seeking input from CSOs that requested input from women's CSOs in the review, drafting, or appeal of policies

94. USAID staff should be reporting on existing gender-sensitive standard indicators, such as USAID standard Indicator: 2.2-3, Number of activities supported with USG assistance that are designed to retain women or recruit women into positions within the national or local government.

- Qualitative assessment of the involvement of women's CSOs in high level decision-making or peace process negotiation
- Percent of key stakeholders involved in reform who are women in sectors in which they have traditionally been underrepresented (e.g., defense, finance, energy, etc.)

Improved Service Delivery and Gender Mainstreaming

- Average time to receive a government service, disaggregated by sex (pre- and post-project intervention)
- Average cost to receive a government service, disaggregated by sex (pre- and post-project intervention)
- Percentage of service users satisfied with quality of government services after project intervention, disaggregated by sex, disability status, ethnic minority status, and sexual orientation/gender identity
- Qualitative assessment of compliance with EU gender mainstreaming mandates (presence of equality commission, mandate of commission, staffing and budget assigned, quality and frequency of reports and other products of commission, accountability of commission, influence of commission)

Anti-Corruption Initiatives and Gender

- Number of USAID-supported capacity building activities (trainings and capacity building workshops, peer to peer learning) to improve the ability of watch-dog organizations/CSOs specifically dedicated to anti-corruption to analyze the gendered impact of corruption
- Percentage of trained watch-dog organizations/CSOs demonstrating improved capacity through increased number of anti-corruption activities
- Percentage of trained watch-dog organizations/CSOs that produce public reports (to law enforcement or media) of verified corruption following USAID-supported capacity building activities
- Number of women who are members of anti-corruption oversight commissions
- Percentage of anti-corruption oversight commissioners who are women

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES

Budgeting for Women's Rights: Monitoring Government Budgets for Compliance with CEDAW, UNIFEM (2008). Available at

<http://www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Media/Publications/UNIFEM/BudgetingForWomensRightsSummaryGuideen.pdf>

Drafting Gender Aware Legislation: How to Promote and Protect Gender Equality in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States, UNDP (2003). Available at

<http://iknowpolitics.org/sites/default/files/drafting20gender-aware20legislation.pdf>

Global Corruption Barometer, Transparency International. Available at

<http://www.transparency.org/research/gcb/overview>

National Mechanisms for Gender Equality in South-East and Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (2010). Available at

http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/Gender/publication/UNECE_2010_Regional%20study_CEE%20et%20a.pdf

Quota Project: Global Database of Quotas for Women, International IDEA, Inter-Parliamentary Union and Stockholm University. Retrieved from <http://www.quotaproject.org/index.cfm>

Women in Politics Mapping Project. Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) and the Division for the Advancement of Women. Available at

http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/public/womeninpolitics2010/wmmmap10_en.pdf.

Women's Participation in Peace Negotiations: Connections between Presence and Influence 2nd ed., UN Women (2012). Available at

<http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/03AWomenPeaceNeg.pdf>

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- Transparency International. *Global Corruption Barometer*. Berlin, Germany: Transparency International, 2014. Accessed July 14, 2014. Retrieved from <http://www.transparency.org/research/gcb/overview>.
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UN Women. *Women in Politics: 2014*. New York, NY: UN Women, 2014. Accessed July 10, 2014. Retrieved from http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/wmnmap14_en.pdf.

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UNDP Regional Centre for Central Europe and CIS. *Eastern Europe and Drafting Gender Aware Legislation: How to Promote and Protect Gender Equality in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States*. Bratislava, Slovakia: UNDP, 2003. Accessed July 14, 2014. Retrieved from <http://iknowpolitics.org/sites/default/files/drafting20gender-aware20legislation.pdf>.

UNIFEM. *Budgeting for Women's Rights: Monitoring Government Budgets for Compliance with CEDAW*. New York, NY: UNIFEM, 2008. Accessed July 15, 2014. Retrieved from <http://www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Media/Publications/UNIFEM/BudgetingForWomensRightsSummaryGuideen.pdf>.

GUIDANCE NOTE 5

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR CIVIL SOCIETY

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES/GAPS IN THE CIVIL SOCIETY SECTOR

The civil society sector, or “third sector,” encompasses all groups outside of government and the private sector (i.e., business). These groups and organizations, typically referred to as civil society organizations (CSOs) or non-governmental organizations (NGOs) include: faith-based organizations, labor unions, community groups, professional and membership associations, not-for-profit health and education providers, and foundations that provide services, advocate for changes in public policy, conduct research, and hold governments accountable. Women’s CSOs⁹⁵ are prominent actors in the E&E region,⁹⁶ promoting gender equality and female empowerment through numerous organizations and a variety of initiatives.

Women’s Majority and Motivation for Participation in Civil Society Leadership. CSOs are important vehicles for women's participation in public life and it is not unusual to see women in leadership and decision-making positions within CSOs in the E&E region. This may be largely due to the fact that civil society work is highly feminized within E&E societies, as “civil society is seen as a legitimate sphere for women to be actively involved without challenging their roles in the private life.”⁹⁷ Women are seen as especially suited for participating in, or even dominating, civil society work because it is considered an extension of their “traditional” care-taking roles. It leaves time for household duties, and is characterized as easier than work in other sectors. For example, the private sector and politics are often considered too time-consuming, require traits that are considered unfeminine, such as shrewdness and prudence, and interfere with women’s household duties.⁹⁸ The lack of equality in civil society participation is problematic, and, when combined with the fact that women rarely hold leadership positions in the government and private sector, further reinforces existing gender stereotypes.

Women’s CSOs Face Challenges in Capacity and Effectiveness. Despite the existence of a variety of women’s groups across the region with significant experience and capabilities, only limited data exists about these CSOs. However, the available data reveal that these CSOs exhibit similar characteristics and challenges: (1) a focus on issues traditionally associated with women, considered “soft” issues (e.g., HIV/AIDS, reproductive rights, women’s rights) rather than “hard” issues such as economic growth, energy, and the environment; (2) a preponderance of activities such as awareness-raising, service provision, or training and capacity-building, which may not be advocacy-oriented; (3) a lack of support for the

95. Women’s CSOs are “civil society groups that promote gender equality, women’s rights and the empowerment of women, or address issues that are of specific concern to women through either advocacy or services.” (Elisabeth Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis* (Washington, DC, 2012), 43).

96. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

97. UNDP Azerbaijan, *Azerbaijan Human Development Report 2007- Gender Attitudes in Azerbaijan: Trends and Challenges*, (Baku, Azerbaijan: UNDP, 2007) 79.

98. Catherine Cozzarelli, *2011 Gender Assessment for USAID/Moldova* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2011). Retrieved from https://communities.usaidallnet.gov/st/sites/st/file/2011_Gender_Assessment_for_USAID_Moldova_Final.pdf.

examination of gender disparities; (4) a lack of capacity to collect survey data on issues affecting women and men differently; and (5) low societal support for women's CSOs, which in some countries lack credibility.⁹⁹ These conditions make it extremely difficult for women's CSOs to accomplish their goals.

Limited Funding Sources and Collaboration. Many CSOs in the E&E region have an extremely limited donor base. A philanthropic culture is developing in the region, but most CSOs rely primarily on governments, foundations, and international donors to support their activities. The global recession has reduced the funding available from local governments and foundations in many cases. Therefore, CSOs continue to rely primarily on international donors for resources, which are typically project-based funds, subject to donor priorities and which do not support CSO sustainability.¹⁰⁰ Without access to unrestricted funds "CSOs find it difficult to make investments that could strengthen their organizational capacities, including developing strategic plans, hiring permanent staff, and updating their computer equipment."¹⁰¹ Many local CSOs also have limited ability to access international donor funds as they are typically large sums with heavy financial and administrative requirements which small organizations in the regions do not have the capacity to meet.¹⁰² These conditions engender competition for the limited funding that is available, which deters collaboration and which has made it difficult for women's CSOs to develop a strong network in the region that can address gender concerns across multiple issue areas. CSOs that focus on issues such as disability, energy and environment, and child welfare, have not typically partnered with women's CSOs or integrated a gender perspective into their work. Similarly, more traditional human rights, civil rights, and youth-focused organizations do not have a history of collaborating with women's CSOs. The lack of collaboration with other CSOs has a negative impact on advocacy efforts as women's CSOs become marginalized or their perceived relevancy is limited to those issues traditionally concerning women. Though women's CSOs have cooperated at the local and national levels around key actions and issues, ranging from adopting quotas to domestic violence and peace building, they have not coalesced to form an established women's movement in the E&E region.

Limited Male Participation in Civil Society Efforts around Gender Equality. While there are some women's CSOs that include men in their work, there are relatively few examples of men-led CSOs that actively work on gender equality or issues that affect men in the E&E region. Work on gender equality is primarily considered the responsibility of women's CSOs and the lack of men advocating for gender equality perpetuates the perception of gender issues as being exclusively relevant to women. In a Georgia gender assessment for example, respondents were unable to identify any CSOs "working on subjects of primary concern for men."¹⁰³

99. USAID, *2012 CSO Sustainability Index for Central and Eastern Europe and Eurasia*, 16th Edition, (Washington, DC: USAID/E&E/DGST, 2012). Retrieved from http://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1863/2012CSOSI_0.pdf

100. United Nations, *Promotion and Protection of All Human Rights, Civil, Political, Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, including the Right to Develop: Report of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on the Situation of Human Rights Defenders, Hina Jilani, Mission to the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia* (New York, NY: UN General Assembly, 2008). Retrieved from <http://www.refworld.org/pdfid/47dfbd822.pdf>

101. USAID, *2012 CSO Sustainability Index for Central and Eastern Europe and Eurasia*, 5.

102. USAID, *2012 CSO Sustainability Index for Central and Eastern Europe and Eurasia*, 5.

103. Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2010), 15. Retrieved from http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADS884.pdf

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR THE CIVIL SOCIETY SECTOR

In the E&E region, civil society data may be more accessible than in some other parts of the world. Data sources such as national statistics offices, regional CSO databases and reports, international donor reports such as the USAID CSO Sustainability Index for Eastern Europe and Eurasia¹⁰⁴ and the CIVICUS' Civil Society Index Country reports are all a good starting point for data collection. Typical challenges to data collection may include administrative obstacles if obtaining information from government sources, or data that may be unreliable. In situations where baseline data is questionable or absent, data may be collected through alternative means such as attitudinal surveys or focus groups. This is the case where data on leadership are needed, and assessments may examine a variety of areas, including gender balance on boards, gender-sensitivity of CSO policies, and women's leadership.

When assessing CSOs in any context, it is important to disaggregate the data by women- and men-led organizations. Similar to disaggregating people-level data by sex, doing so provides insight into who the decisionmakers are and what differences exist in receipt of funds, operational freedom, or legal standing based on the sex of organizational leadership can be identified. This disaggregation can also extend to ethnic groups in order to determine whether organizations led by ethnic minorities are affected negatively by their leadership's ethnicity. "Indicators that are people oriented, rather than focused on systems change, will be more likely to reveal gender-specific impacts."¹⁰⁵

ILLUSTRATIVE GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR MEASURING CHANGES IN GENDER GAPS IN THE CIVIL SOCIETY SECTOR

Below sample GSIs are provided by issue-area affecting women in civil society. Note that Operating Units should refine and customize these indicators to ensure that they are relevant to measurements in their particular context.

Improved balance in participation in civil society leadership

- Ratio of female-led CSOs to male-led CSOs receiving USAID-funded assistance, disaggregated by size of CSO and primary source of funding
- Percent of CSOs receiving USAID-funded assistance that report having 40-60% female upper management, disaggregated by size of CSO and primary source of funding
- Percentage of CSOs receiving USAID-funded assistance with boards that report having 40-60% female members, disaggregated by size of CSO and primary source of funding
- Percent of decision-making positions in trade and labor unions receiving USAID-funded assistance filled by women
- Number of activities (e.g., conferences, media events, etc.) promoting gender equality in leadership in the third sector supported by USAID
- Percentage of female beneficiaries of USAID training who successfully transitioned as decision-makers in the civil society sector to decision-makers in the private sector or government

104. The USAID CSO Sustainability Index scores the civil society in seven dimensions: Legal Environment, Organizational Capacity, Financial Viability, Advocacy, Service Provision, Infrastructure and Public Image.

105. Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia*, 34.

Improved capacity and effectiveness among women's CSOs¹⁰⁶

- Number of management and operational capacity building activities (e.g., training, study tours, management education) that civil society leaders and women's CSO staff take part in, disaggregated by sex¹⁰⁷
- Number of women's CSO staff trained in organizational leadership (or other key skill areas such as advocacy, knowledge management, networking, volunteer recruitment and management) with USAID support, disaggregated by sex
- Ratio of USAID-supported female-led CSOs vs. male-led CSOs reporting increased volunteer mobilization for advocacy or awareness-raising
- Ratio of female-led CSOs vs. male-led CSOs recognized by government officials or donors as influencing policy related to gender equality
- Number of women's CSOs supported by USAID that are able to increase the participation of vulnerable or marginalized women in their activities
- Percentage of women's CSOs demonstrating an improved technical capacity in research, analysis, and data collection as a result of USAID support
- Percent increase of CSOs with gender-sensitive human resources policies from pre-intervention and to post-intervention

Expanded funding sources and collaboration

- Percentage of total government CSO funding awarded to CSOs working on women's rights and gender equality issues
- Number of women's CSOs that have obtained grants from external sources after USAID-funded training
- Number of small women's CSOs that are successful in competing for donor funding
- Number of women's CSOs receiving multi-year grants after USAID-funded training
- Percent of women's CSOs with sustainable sources of funding
- Number of collaborative activities between women's CSOs and other CSOs representing vulnerable or marginalized groups
- Number of women's CSOs that take part in watchdog or activist functions for their areas of interest that are engaged with the government and other CSOs¹⁰⁸

Increased male participation in civil society efforts around gender equality

- Number of CSOs addressing men's gender issues, disaggregated by sex of NGO leader
- Percent increase in number of men participating¹⁰⁹ in civil society efforts on gender equality issues
- Number of men who have completed training in civic education programs on gender equality¹¹⁰
- Number of CSOs established by men or led by men working on gender equality issues
- Number of media campaigns aimed at increasing men's engagement in gender equality issues

106. For additional indicators, see Amended Governing Justly and Democratically (GJD) indicators 4.1 "Strengthening Democratic Civic Participation." Available from <http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/78561.pdf>

107. GJD 4.1 Indicator "Number of Civil Society Organizations using USG assistance to improve internal organizational capacity."

108. GJD 4.1 Indicator "Number of USG assisted Civil Society Organizations that engage in advocacy and watchdog functions."

109. Men's participation may include participation in campaigns against gender-based violence, public support of female candidates for public office, working as staff or volunteers for women's NGOs, etc.

110. GJD 4.1 Indicator "Number of people who have completed USG assisted civic education programs"

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES FOR CIVIL SOCIETY

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GUIDANCE NOTE 6

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR THE MEDIA SECTOR

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES IN THE MEDIA SECTOR

A free and independent media is a vital component of democratic societies within the E&E region¹¹¹ and it is particularly relevant when considering gender equality. Mass media plays a significant role in informing the public about issues related to gender equality and the development of societal opinions and values. The points of view and stereotypes presented by the media influence viewers' or readers' opinions and actions in terms of gender equality and reflect broader societal views. Though both women and men are active in the media sector in the region, distinct imbalances remain in terms of the types of roles women and men play, and how the media portrays issues to the public.

Employment Imbalances. Largely due to the region's political history of communist regimes promoting full employment, many countries in the region are close to achieving gender parity at many levels of employment in the media. However, this means "gender inequalities became hidden rather than absent."¹¹² Though there is limited data on access to media, communications, and information and communication technologies (ICTs), a few studies involving surveys of media companies and focus groups have been conducted by the International Women's Media Foundation, UNDP, and UN Women. Women and men have almost reached gender parity at most employment levels through middle management, including senior editors and chiefs of correspondents. However, the representation of women starts to diminish as one moves up the chain to senior management, top-level management, and board-level representatives.¹¹³ Furthermore, men continue to dominate the more technical and creative (and generally higher paying) professional-level jobs, such as video-editors, photographers, scene design, and camera and sound. Consistent with broader gender stereotypes in the region, women overwhelmingly fill most of the support positions such as in sales, finances, and administration in positions such as account managers, human resources specialists, advertising personnel, and secretaries. Women do not make the final decisions as to which stories get publicized and the way in which they are portrayed, as there are few women who are the final decisionmakers.¹¹⁴ However, patterns of employment vary in rural and urban areas. In Russia, for example, outside the major media networks in the urban areas, the pay levels are so low that "journalism has become a women's profession."¹¹⁵ Finally, of those working in the media sector, women make up a significantly larger proportion of workers

111. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

112. IWMF, *Global Report on the Status of Women in the News Media* (Washington, DC: Ford Foundation, Loreen Arbus Foundation, Coralán K. Stiles, UNESCO Communication Development Division, Communication and Information Center, The McClatchy Company Foundation, Knight Foundation, 2011), 263. Retrieved from <http://www.iwmf.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/IWMF-Global-Report-Summary.pdf>

113. IWMF, *Global Report on the Status of Women in the News Media*.

114. IWMF, *Global Report on the Status of Women in the News Media*.

115. IREX. *The Media Sustainability Index 2013: Development of Sustainable Independent Media in Europe and Eurasia* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), 214. Retrieved from <http://www.irex.org/project/media-sustainability-index-msi-europe-eurasia>

without full-time staff status. The results from the limited studies conducted do not point to root causes of these findings, however identification of these issues is the first step in bringing the situation to light.

Access to media sources. The media plays a role both in helping shape gender roles and perpetuating their influence in society. With the increasing accessibility and popularity of technology as a source of information, media sources are a changing landscape. In addition to the growing use of the internet and social media,¹¹⁶ more traditional sources of media also include television, radio, and newspaper. Data on media consumption by media type is not readily available, signifying a lack of attention to this area in the region. In 2011, a survey in Russia showed that 49 percent of the population used the internet, 86 percent of whom used social media. In Ukraine, 39 percent reported using the internet, 77 percent of whom used social media.¹¹⁷ Little sex-disaggregated data is available, however it is recognized that a digital divide still exists between the sexes where women have less access to technology and the internet.¹¹⁸ Many countries have developed or are in the process of developing National Action Plans for Information Society Policies to guide national ICT plans, most of which are gender neutral. Awareness of these policies or the relevance of gender to ICTs remains limited and, in comparison with other regions, advocates from the Central Eastern Europe/Commonwealth Independent States have not been engaged in global gender and ICT networks.”¹¹⁹

The rise in social media use has also brought an increase in promotion of sexual services and new means for trafficking in persons recruitment.¹²⁰ Media has long provided a tool for trafficking crime networks; the growth of the internet and social media has served to expand this further. Traffickers increasingly use the internet and social media sites, which are largely unregulated and interactions are untraceable, putting women at greater risk for becoming victims.¹²¹

Women’s perspective and continued portrayal of gender stereotypes. One of the key gender issues involving the media concerns the way in which women are presented. For example, in Azerbaijan, women are rarely presented as the “experts” or “important people” when they are interviewed or presented in the news; they are most often shown as ordinary people or victims.¹²² Similarly, in Moldova most programs that include debates and discussion formats are usually led by men, reinforcing the stereotype of males as an authority figure.¹²³ Female journalists “do not typically write editorials or ‘serious’ news articles but focus on softer ‘women’s issues’ which are presented in the back pages of the newspaper.”¹²⁴ News

116. For detailed information on the types of social media and its reach in E&E, see M. Venderwerff, *New Media and International Media Development: A Resource Guide for Europe and Eurasia* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2008), http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADM605.pdf.

117. Pew Research Center. *Global Digital Communication: Texting, Social Networking Popular Worldwide, Global Attitudes Project* (Washington, DC: Pew Research Center, 2011), www.pewglobal.org/2011/12/20/global-digital-communication-texting-social-networking-popular-worldwide/.

118. UNDP and UNIFEM, *Bridging the Gender Digital Divide: A Report on Gender and ICT in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States* (Bratislava: UNDP and UNIFEM, 2004), x, http://web.undp.sk/uploads/Gender%20and%20ICT%20reg_rep_eng.pdf.

119. UNDP and UNIFEM, *Bridging the Gender Digital Divide*, x.

120. World Vision, “The Global Sex Trade,” http://www.worldvision.org.nz/media/72259/the_global_sex_trade.pdf.

121. Katherine Jolluck, *Combating the Trafficking of Women in Eastern Europe* (Stanford, CA: Stanford University Program on Human Rights), http://iis-db.stanford.edu/pubs/23756/jolluck_Trafficking_Final.pdf.

122. UNDP Azerbaijan Human Development Report 2007- *Gender Attitudes in Azerbaijan trends and Challenges* (Baku, Azerbaijan: UNDP, 2007), 81, <http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Azerbaijan/AzerbaijanNHDR2007.pdf>

123. C. Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment for USAID/Moldova* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2011).

124. C. Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment for USAID/Moldova*, 23.

coverage is far more often about men than it is about women, as it becomes more about satisfying media owners than expressing opinions and news.¹²⁵ The mass media rarely cover issues related to gender equality and the promotion of gender awareness. Furthermore, programming for women tends to focus on topics such as domestic work, health, and beauty, which serve to reinforce gender stereotypes.¹²⁶ In Russia, “coverage is very patriarchal, supporting patriarchal institutions like the current authorities and the Orthodox Church. Blogs and social media remain the main venue for voicing the broad spectrum of social interests and concerns.”¹²⁷ Globally, almost half (46%) of the stories in the news media were shown to reinforce gender stereotypes, almost eight times higher than stories that challenge such stereotypes (6%).¹²⁸ “Media can also be framed as social actors in and of themselves, with the power to give impetus to social development.”¹²⁹

Unethical reporting of gender-sensitive issues. Two issues come into play: first, whether media is censored based on gender-related issues/sensitivities, and second, whether gender-sensitive stories are reported ethically. Out of fear of losing their jobs altogether, many female journalists do not protest or challenge the owners of the media companies about the way stories are presented (or suppressed, as in the case of censorship).¹³⁰ In the age of the internet, the issue of censorship becomes more complex.¹³¹ The most common type of censorship practiced is self-censorship by media personnel. Freedom House reports that censorship in Eurasia is common.¹³² There are differing perspectives as to the motivations for self-censorship, but one person in the region cited “a lack of institutional protection from their editors and media. The non-existence of protective mechanisms for journalists and their sources translates to a lack of investigative journalism.”¹³³ Serious topics such as violence against women, sexual harassment, trafficking, etc., are often reported in slanted ways, sometimes identifying victims by name, without regard for the safety of those involved. In Georgia, a journalist reported “that in the quest for sensationalism and in the race to be the first to break the story, media companies often violate ethical norms.”¹³⁴ This sensationalism can be found in many countries. In Serbia, “there are many...unprofessional journalists but professional standards have also deteriorated. In a race for exclusivity many journalists are not checking facts... Despite the obvious need for media diversity, the expansion of tabloids is having a strong and negative impact on society, as tabloids are published with unchecked information and don’t adhere to any ethical code.”¹³⁵

125. IREX, *The Media Sustainability Index 2013: Development of Sustainable Independent Media in Europe and Eurasia* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), <http://www.irex.org/project/media-sustainability-index-msi-europe-eurasia>.

126. IREX, *The Media Sustainability Index 2013*.

127. IREX, *The Media Sustainability Index 2013*, 217.

128. World Association for Christian Communication. *Global Media Monitoring Project 2010 “Who Makes the News?”* (Toronto: WACC, 2010), http://www.genderclearinghouse.org/upload/Assets/Documents/pdf/gmmp_global_report_en.pdf.

129. UNESCO, *Gender-Sensitive Indicators for Media: Framework for Indicators to Gauge Gender Sensitivity in Media Operations and Content* (Paris, France: UNESCO, 2012), 14, <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002178/217831e.pdf>

130. IREX. *The Media Sustainability Index 2014: Development of Sustainable Independent Media in Europe and Eurasia* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2014), https://www.irex.org/sites/default/files/u105/MSI_EE_2014_Full.pdf

131. For more information, see M. Venderwerff, *New Media and International Media Development: A Resource Guide for Europe and Eurasia* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2008), 14, http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADM605.pdf.

132. Freedom House, “Freedom in the World 2014, Eurasia Fact Sheet,” <http://freedomhouse.org/sites/default/files/Eurasia%20Fact%20Sheet.pdf>.

133. IREX, *The Media Sustainability Index 2013*, 81.

134. IREX, *The Media Sustainability Index 2013*, 166.

135. IREX, *The Media Sustainability Index 2013*, 121.

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) IN THE MEDIA SECTOR

In order to improve the data available on media consumption and to track the status of gender equality in the field, the following GSIs can be implemented. Indicators should be tailored to the particular type(s) of media that are of interest.

Addressing Employment Imbalances

- Number of laws/policies in place that guarantee equal pay for women and men in the media sector
- Proportion of women and men in part-time positions in the media workforce, compared to the total part-time population
- Ratio of women to men in creative positions in the media (e.g., video-editors, photographers, scene design, camera and sound)
- Percentage of faculty members who are female in schools of journalism
- Percentage of enrolled students in journalism programs at the tertiary level who are women
- Number of female mentorship programs in media organizations (in-house or through support organizations such as a union or media associations)
- Percent of women, after participating in USAID-supported training or mentorship programs, who assume a decision-making role in a media organization
- Ratio of women to men in positions of ownership, upper management, or decisionmaker position in media

Access to Media Sources

- Number of girls/women gaining access to ICT devices and the internet through USAID-supported activities
- Percentage of media outlets reporting sex-disaggregated data about consumption of different media

Women's Perspectives & Portrayal of Stereotypes

- Ratio of articles that provide coverage of issues related to gender equality and empowerment of women and girls compared to male-focused topics
- Ratio of articles/broadcasts portraying women as leaders or experts compared to those with men as leaders/experts
- Percentage increase of stories printed or produced about women in non-traditional and/or leadership roles after USAID-supported training or capacity building intervention
- Ratio of stories for or about women that include “hard” topics such as politics, economics, technology, etc. compared to women’s topics on “traditional soft topics” such as domestic work, etc.

Decreasing Unethical Reporting of Gender-Sensitive Issues

- Ratio of stories or reports following journalistic ethical standards compared to those not following ethical standards (e.g., identifying victims by name) after USAID-supported training or capacity building intervention
- Ratio of surveyed journalists who report feeling constrained about how they report on women’s issues/perspectives compared to those that report not feeling constrained by their superiors
- Percent of surveyed journalists reporting engaging in self-censorship, pre- and post-USAID intervention, disaggregated by sex

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES IN THE MEDIA SECTOR

Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Member States: Women and the Media- Advancing Gender Equality in Decision-Making in Media Organizations, European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE), (2012). Retrieved from: <http://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/MH3113742ENC-Women-and-Media-Report-EIGE.pdf>

Gender-Sensitive Indicators for Media: Framework for Indicators to Gauge Gender Sensitivity in Media Operations and Content, UNESCO (2012). Retrieved from: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002178/217831e.pdf>

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GUIDANCE NOTE 7

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR RULE OF LAW

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, and compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I – GENDER ISSUES IN THE RULE OF LAW SECTOR

Two issues must be considered when working in the rule of law sector with a gender lens: the first is ensuring that there is no gender bias in the law itself, and the second is ensuring that women and men have equal access to the justice system which involves examining any *de facto* barriers that might exist. In the E&E region,¹³⁶ all countries have ratified the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and are members of the Council of Europe and signatories to key human rights conventions. A number of these countries are also seeking accession to the European Union, a process that requires compliance with principles of gender equality, including the adoption of laws that guarantee equality on the basis of sex and/or prohibit gender discrimination. Many of the challenges for women in the region arise from the second issue. The key challenges are described below.¹³⁷

Limited implementation of laws: Regional legal protection for equal rights is generally strong; however, there remains a significant gap between laws on the books (*de jure*) and their practical implementation.¹³⁸ Limited mechanisms to investigate violations and high burdens of proof imply that few cases of gender-based discrimination have been successfully tried in courts. Case law and legal practice in the area of gender-based discrimination is limited, and this topic is not a part of standard legal training.¹³⁹

Limited use of “positive discrimination”: Few measures exist to counter the challenges that women have faced in the past. Few affirmative action measures have been put into place to help women advance in traditionally male-dominated fields. For example, only a few countries have quotas for women in political parties.¹⁴⁰

Neutral laws or regulations on issues that disproportionately impact a specific group: Gender neutral (or, indeed, gender blind) laws are not responsive to the distinct needs of women and men and can be implemented in ways that disadvantage specific groups. For example, the law may allow financial service providers to charge consumers with different credit profiles varying rates at a loan officer's discretion, and the impact may be that women are consistently charged higher interest rates than men even when they have the same credit profile. Laws on domestic violence and sexual harassment, which are frequently facially neutral but in practice generally provide protections for more women than men, are

136. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

137. Elisabeth Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2012), 56, accessed March 25, 2014, http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnaea292.pdf.

138. Rangita de Silva de Alwis, *Advancing Equal Rights for Women and Girls: The Status of CEDAW Legislative Compliance in Eastern Europe and Central Asia* (New York, NY: UNFPA, 2009), accessed April 1, 2014, http://eeca.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/advancingequalrights_0.pdf.

139. Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, 56. It is also important to note that while laws protect men and women, they do not necessarily protect people with gender identities that are not heterosexual.

140. Bernd Rechel, *Minority Rights in Central and Eastern Europe* (New York, NY: Routledge, 2009).

underdeveloped in several of the E&E countries.^{141,142} In addition, the implementation of employment law in the region has resulted in women reporting discrimination in hiring and promotions, in most cases, and men having unequal access to paternity leave benefits.¹⁴³

Gender segregation in the legal profession: While there are many women in the legal profession as a whole, they more often serve as notaries or lower court judges rather than prosecutors, police, or judicial leaders (e.g., chief judges, although Serbia and Republic of Macedonia have fairly high female representation in the judiciary). Underrepresentation of women in key institutions, such as law enforcement, prosecutors' offices, and legislatures, likely deter women from seeking justice and for gender issues being considered during the process of creating or amending legislation.¹⁴⁴ Women in the legal professions also tend to work in areas traditionally associated with women, such as family law or juvenile justice.

Access to "justice chain": Key barriers for women, especially those who are minorities or live in rural areas, include a low level of legal literacy, the cost of court fees and legal representation, inaccessibility of courts (location and hours of operation/hearing schedules), lack of prioritization of sensitive cases (which may mean long delays, depending on the specifics of a case), lack of accessibility of childcare, and corruption. Legal aid in general, and especially for indigent women, is rather nascent in the region. Cultural norms that consider violence against women and sexual harassment as "normal" are prevalent both in the justice system and society at large, and such attitudes discourage women from seeking justice. Specialized services, such as "one stop shops," for cases of gender-based violence, especially in cases of sexual violence, are underdeveloped, and gender-based violence against men and boys, especially sexually-based violence, is not well-understood and may not even be recognized by national justice systems. This lack of specialized services is another reason for women and men not seeking justice. Finally, tracking and monitoring of judicial decision-making has not focused on identifying gender bias in the courtroom.¹⁴⁵

141. UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), *Progress of the World's Women: In Pursuit of Justice 2011–2012* (New York: UN Women, 2011). See also Eibe Riedel, Gilles Giacca, Christophe Golay, *Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in International Law* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2014).

142. Elisabeth Duban, *Equal Rights, Equal Justice: Toolkit for Addressing Gender-based Violence through Rule of Law Projects* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2014).

143. Sarosh Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women in Emerging Europe and Central Asia* (Washington, DC: World Bank, 2012).

144. UN Women, *Progress of the World's Women*.

145. UN Women, *Progress of the World's Women*. See also UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, *Access to Justice—Concept Note for Half Day General Discussion*.

PART 2 – GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR RULE OF LAW PROGRAMMING

In order to measure how women and men experience the rule of law it is necessary to consider both *de jure* law (statutes, constitutions, legislation, etc.) and the *de facto* implementation of the law. Each requires considerable interpretation and an ability to identify how women’s and men’s experience of the justice system differs. USAID projects in the region focus on distinct aspects of rule of law, such as legal aid, case management, judicial training, and increasing legal awareness, and gender should be approached as a cross-cutting issue in all projects.

Challenges in collecting gender-sensitive data. There are several challenges in collecting data in this sector due to the need to protect the identity of complainants in some cases, and lack of government capacity and issues of transparency. Some sources for data include Government statistical offices, CEDAW compliance reports submitted to the Committee by governments and unofficial reports from NGOs¹⁴⁶ Both the lack of government capacity to collect sex-disaggregated data and issues of transparency are significant challenges for collecting gender-sensitive data at the national level. Statistics about the justice system are generally collected periodically (often annually) but are not usually disaggregated by the sex of the party. Courts and legal systems are historically sensitive about sharing information, fearing that it will be used against them or misinterpreted. There are also sound reasons why some court records, especially those involving juveniles or sexual crimes, are closed. It is also difficult, if not impossible, to verify the accuracy of data, which may not be collected routinely or consistently by courts or other legal institutions. The ongoing movement (often within USAID-funded projects) to transition to electronic court record-keeping will continue to improve the availability and accuracy of information about rule of law programming.

The World Justice Project Rule of Law Index¹⁴⁷ is a quantitative tool that provides a comprehensive picture of how countries adhere to the rule of law. The Vera Institute of Justice, through the UN Rule of Law Indicator Project, has developed a specific set of principles to guide the development of rule of law indicators that identify the strengths and challenges of legal systems.¹⁴⁸ These two tools, while more comprehensive in nature, offer individual factors/indicators that can inform the development of specific gender-sensitive indicators (GSIs) for rule of law projects.

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS

The indicators suggested below focus on the gendered aspects of implementing laws, increasing legal knowledge, and female and male perceptions about the justice system.

Limited implementation of laws

- Number of government bodies (e.g., human rights commission/ombudsman’s office, women’s rights commissions, specialized courts or tribunals, gender equality or women’s rights

146. United Nations Human Rights, “The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW),” accessed April 1, 2014, <http://www.ohchr.org/en/hrbodies/cedaw/pages/cedawindex.aspx>.

147. The World Justice Project, “WJP Rule of Law Index 2014,” accessed April 1, 2014, <http://worldjusticeproject.org/rule-of-law-index>.

148. Vera Institute of Justice and Members of the Altus Global Alliance, *The United Nations Rule of Law Indicators: Implementation Guide and Project Tools* (New York: United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) and Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OCHR), 2011), 7, accessed April 1, 2014, http://www.un.org/en/events/peacekeepersday/2011/publications/un_rule_of_law_indicators.pdf.

rapporteurs, etc.) organized specifically to protect and/or promote gender awareness and equality

- Ratio of women to men that have received assistance or training from a government body that was organized specifically to protect and/or promote gender awareness and equality with USAID support
- Number of organizations that have received assistance or training from a government body that was organized specifically to protect and/or promote gender awareness and equality with USAID support
- Number of law enforcement officials receiving USAID-supported training on laws that prevent gender-based discrimination, disaggregated by sex
- Number of judges, judicial staff, prosecutors, legal aid lawyers receiving USAID-supported training on laws that prevent gender-based discrimination, disaggregated by sex
- Number of legal professionals reporting having applied knowledge on laws that prevent gender-based discrimination gained through USAID-supported training in the court room, disaggregated by sex
- Number of legal courses or curricula focusing on gender-based discrimination developed and delivered as a result of USAID assistance
- Ratio of number of cases on gender-based discrimination being filed in the year following the intervention to number of cases on gender-based discrimination being filed the year before the intervention
- Ratio of number of cases on gender-based discrimination prosecuted in the year following a USAID-funded intervention to the number of cases on gender-based discrimination prosecuted in the year before the intervention, disaggregated by result of prosecution (acquitted, convicted, type of sentence)

Limited use of “positive discrimination”

- Number of new laws adopted after USAID assistance that aim to provide women with special status or affirmative action considerations in traditionally-male dominated fields, e.g. law enforcement, law, political representation
- Number of men and women from targeted regions attending USAID-supported programs aimed at reducing bias due to gender norms
- Number of NGO workers, legal officials, and police trained on the specificities of “positive discrimination” laws and measures, disaggregated by sex and type of organization

Neutral laws on issues that disproportionately impact a specific group

- Number of laws proposed after USAID assistance in order to meet international conventions such as CEDAW
- Number of laws proposed after USAID assistance on issues that impact women disproportionately such as domestic violence, marital rape, sexual harassment
- Number of laws proposed after USAID assistance on issues that impact men disproportionately such as paternity leave, workplace safety
- Number of police, NGO workers, and legal officials trained, with USAID assistance, on current laws that impact a specific group of people disproportionately, disaggregated by sex and type of organization
- Number of cases filed by USAID-supported legal aid service centers based on laws that impact a specific group of people disproportionately, disaggregated by sex of plaintiff

- Prosecution rate for cases filed by USAID-supported legal aid service centers based on laws that disproportionately affect a specific group, disaggregated by sex of plaintiff and result of prosecution (acquitted, convicted, type of sentence)

Gender segregation in the legal profession

- Number of female students participating in a USAID-funded program to create awareness about career options in the legal field
- Ratio of female to male students participating in a USAID-funded program exposing participants to careers in various fields of law
- Number of legal measures supported by USAID programming that aim to increase representation of women in various fields of law, including quotas, modified entry and promotion requirements
- Number of women served by USAID-funded programs aimed at increasing the representation of women in various fields of law, including mentoring programs, networking events for women, and career coaching
- Ratio of women to men in legal professions receiving USAID-supported training, disaggregated by field of law and position

Access to “justice chain”

- Number of women that have attended a USAID-supported awareness program that educates them about their rights, disaggregated by location of training (rural vs. urban)
- Ratio of women to men who have received assistance from a USAID-supported legal aid clinic, disaggregated by location of clinic (rural vs. urban)
- Ratio of cases handled by USAID-supported legal aid service centers for female complainants to those for male complainants, disaggregated by type of case being pursued and income level of clients
- Of cases initiated through USAID-supported legal aid service centers that are filed on behalf of female complainants, ratio of cases pursued through formal mechanisms to those pursued through informal mechanisms (e.g., courts versus alternative dispute resolution)
- Of cases initiated through USAID-supported legal aid service centers, ratio of cases resulting in prosecutions that were brought by female complainants to those brought by male complainants
- Percent change in level of satisfaction with the judicial system reported by beneficiaries of USAID-supported legal aid service centers, disaggregated by sex, ethnicity, and age group

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES FOR RULE OF LAW

The World Justice Project (WJP) *Rule of Law Index 2014*. Retrieved from: <http://worldjusticeproject.org/rule-of-law-index>

United Nations Human Rights page on The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). Retrieved from: <http://www.ohchr.org/en/hrbodies/cedaw/pages/cedawindex.aspx>

Vera Institute of Justice and Members of the Altus Global Alliance. *The United Nations Rule of Law Indicators: Implementation Guide and Project Tools*. New York: United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) and Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OCHR), 2011. Retrieved from: http://www.un.org/en/events/peacekeepersday/2011/publications/un_rule_of_law_indicators.pdf

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- World Justice Project. “WJP Rule of Law Index 2014.” Accessed April 1, 2014. Retrieved from: <http://worldjusticeproject.org/rule-of-law-index>

GUIDANCE NOTE 8

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR THE LABOR SECTOR

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, and compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES IN THE LABOR MARKET SECTOR

The E&E region,¹⁴⁹ in comparison with other USAID-assisted regions, tends to have a higher level of women's participation in the labor force due in part to communist policies that required most adults to work. However, compared to men, women in the region are less economically active. The key gender issues in the E&E labor market sector are highlighted below.

Employment Participation: Women in some E&E countries have higher reported unemployment rates than men, but in many countries, women's unemployment rates are similar to men's.¹⁵⁰ Women are still responsible for balancing reproductive responsibilities with their employment options. Thus, they are more likely to leave the labor force for extended periods of time while having children, especially with the lack of free or subsidized child care that was prevalent during communist times.

Employer Discrimination: Employer discrimination against young women of child-bearing age has been identified as a problem in many countries, as has discrimination against older women.¹⁵¹ Hiring and promotion practices still hinder women who may be overlooked due to the expectation that women will need maternity leave and other similar benefits, which while mandated by law, can be a heavy burden on smaller firms. Often the retirement age for women is lower than that for men, and employers have no incentive to invest in workers they think will leave after a short period of time. Alleged cases of sexual harassment are also prevalent.¹⁵²

Vulnerable Employment: More women than men, therefore, find themselves in part-time, informal, or self-employment in order to allow them more flexibility to attend to their home and child needs. (However, part-time formal employment is not as readily available in the E&E region as in OECD countries.) These types of employment often have lower wages and do not have the same level of security and benefits found in full-time formal employment.¹⁵³

149. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

150. International Labor Organization. *Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) 8th edition* (Geneva: ILO, 2014), accessed January 31, 2015. Retrieved from: http://www.ilo.org/empelm/what/WCMS_114240/lang--en/index.htm.

151. Sarosh Sattar. *Opportunities for Men and Women in Emerging Europe and Central Asia*, (Washington, DC: The World Bank, 2012). Accessed January 31, 2015. Retrieved from: <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/2800/659310WVP00PUBL065737B0Gender0Report.pdf?sequence=1>

152. International Labour Organization, "Gender equality, employment and part-time work in developed economies," Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) 7th Edition, 2011. Accessed March 26, 2014 Retrieved from: <http://kilm.ilo.org/manuscript/sectionB.asp>

153. Sarosh Sattar. *Opportunities for Men and Women in Emerging Europe and Central Asia*, (Washington, DC: The World Bank, 2012). Accessed January 31, 2015. Retrieved from: <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/2800/659310WVP00PUBL065737B0Gender0Report.pdf?sequence=1>

Occupational and Vertical Segregation: Many jobs such as in construction are considered “men’s work” based on gendered notions of male strength rather than actual physical capability. As a result, men continue to work in higher paying but more dangerous jobs such as construction and mining, while women work in lower paying jobs such as in hair care and handicrafts (occupational segregation).¹⁵⁴ “Protectionist laws” that restrict women’s work in particular sectors or at certain times still exist in some E&E countries.¹⁵⁵ Furthermore, in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia¹⁵⁶ (which includes the E&E region) only 1 in every 42 full-time female workers is in senior management, as opposed to 1 in 6 for male workers (i.e., vertical segregation).¹⁵⁷ The extent of vertical segregation varies widely within the region, however. Among USAID-assisted countries, Ukraine leads with close to 30 percent of firms having women in senior management, while Kosovo lags with 0.3 percent.¹⁵⁸

Education and Training: The types of work women do are often attributed to their educational choices, which are limited by gender stereotypes about socially acceptable fields for women. However, women in the region have, on average, higher educational attainment rates than men, and when field and occupation are taken into account, the wage gap between men and women widens (i.e., men with lower education levels earn more than women with higher education levels).¹⁵⁹

154. Susan Somach, *The Other Side of the Gender Equation: Gender Issues for Men in the Europe and Eurasia Region*, (Washington, DC: USAID and JBS International, 2011), 23. Accessed March 25, 2014. Retrieved from: http://kdid.org/sites/socialtransitions/files/resource/files/Gender_Issues_Men_7-28-11-Final.pdf

155. The World Bank, "Gender differences in employment and why they matter." In *World Development Report: Gender Equality and Development*, (Washington, DC: The World Bank, 2012), 235.

156. This refers to the World Bank’s Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia region.

157. Elisabeth Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, (Washington, DC: USAID, 2012), 61. Accessed March 25, 2014. Retrieved from: http://www.gem2.org/sites/default/files/USAID_Gender_Equality_Toolkit%20for%20Analysis.pdf

158. Sarosh Sattar. *Opportunities for Men and Women in Emerging Europe and Central Asia* (Washington, DC: The World Bank, 2012), 68, accessed January 31, 2015 at <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/2800/659310VWP00PUBL065737B0Gender0Report.pdf?sequence=1>

159. Sattar. *Opportunities for Men and Women in Emerging Europe and Central Asia*, xvii.

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR THE LABOR MARKET SECTOR

Job creation and generating employment opportunities for women and men are an important aspect of USAID economic growth initiatives. USAID-supported workforce development programs emphasize Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) as a means to provide beneficiaries with new skills to join, re-enter, or advance within the formal workforce.

Although the goal language varies, many donor organizations and governments are interested in achieving full and productive employment for their populations and ensuring decent work conditions for all workers.¹⁶⁰ This indicator is also tracked through the International Labor Organization's Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM).¹⁶¹ ILO also tracks informal employment statistics, which are available through the ILOSTAT database.¹⁶² ILO's programs complement governments' regular data collection efforts and the majority of the KILM and ILOSTAT indicators are disaggregated by sex.

The USG Standard Foreign Assistance Indicators for workplace development fall under the Economic Growth Program Area and Gender, and they include:

4.6.3	4.6.3 Workforce Development¹⁶³
4.6.3-2	Number of persons receiving new employment or better employment (including better self-employment) as a result of participation in USG-funded workforce development programs
4.6.3-7	Share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sector
4.6.3-8	Number of workforce development initiatives completed as a result of USG participation in public-private partnerships
4.6.3-9	Person hours of training completed in workforce development supported by USG assistance
4.6.3-10	Number of days of USG funded technical assistance in workforce development provided to counterparts or stakeholders
GNDR	Gender
GNDR-2	Percentage of female participants in USG-assisted programs designed to increase access to productive economic resources (assets, credit, income or employment)

These provide the key areas in which the USG measures workforce development progress. It is crucial that all data is sex-disaggregated for beneficiaries for more meaningful comparison and gender gap measurement. Missions might consider using some of the following indicators depending on the specific programs active in their countries:

Gendered Employment Participation (Adult and Youth)

160. United Nations. Sustainable Development Goals Proposal (New York: UN, 2015). Accessed August 31, 2015. Retrieved from: <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdgsproposal.html>

161. Employment Sector, International Labour Office, *Guide to the New Millennium Development Goal Indicators: including the full decent work indicators set.* (Geneva: ILO, 2009). Accessed March 26, 2014 Retrieved from: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/documents/publication/wcms_110511.pdf

162. ILOSTAT. *Databases and subjects*, (Geneva: ILO, 2013). Accessed on August 31, 2015. Retrieved from: http://www.ilo.org/ilostat/faces/help_home/data_by_subject?_afzLoop=295560840532577#%40%3F_afzLoop%3D295560840532577%26_adf.ctrl-state%3D3k47uozrt_275

163. Available in full at <http://www.state.gov/indicators/>. Note that these indicators may be updated over time.

- Overall and location-specific employment rates of population targeted by USAID intervention by sex and by age group
- Overall and location-specific unemployment rates of population targeted by USAID intervention by sex and by age group
- Percentage distribution of labor market by sector by sex and by age group
- Person hours of USAID-supported job or workforce training completed, disaggregated by sex and age group
- Ratio of women to men transitioning from USAID-funded job or workforce training to (paid) formal employment
- Ratio of women to men transitioning from USAID-funded job or workforce training to (paid) informal employment
- Ratio of earnings of female to male USAID-funded job or workforce training beneficiaries transitioning to paid employment
- Ratio of female to male USAID-funded job or workforce training beneficiaries maintaining employment six months after completion of training (or internship or apprenticeship period, as appropriate)
- Ratio of female to male USAID-funded job or workforce training beneficiaries reporting effective mentoring through their training program
- Ratio of female to male USAID-funded job or workforce training beneficiaries reporting gains in earnings within a year as a result of the skills learned in their training

Employer Discrimination

- Number of new equal opportunity in employment regulations adopted with USAID assistance that have effective enforcement mechanisms
- Number of new workplace regulations adopted with USAID assistance that have effective enforcement mechanisms to provide protection from discrimination based on sex or sexual identity
- Number of new workplace regulations adopted with USAID assistance that strengthen maternity or family leave policies
- Number of workplace discrimination-related cases effectively resolved with USAID assistance
- Increase in number of employees / business organizations completing workplace sexual harassment sensitivity training, disaggregated by sector and sex of staff

Vulnerable Employment

- Number of female beneficiaries of USAID programming who undertake roles with more managerial responsibilities either through new jobs or through promotions, disaggregated by sector
- Reduction in gender wage gap (within a beneficiary group, region, or sector) as a result of new policies supported by USAID
- Number of organizations reporting increase in employees covered by benefits such as health care and pension schemes, disaggregated by sex of employee and sector of organization
- Number of new workplace regulations addressing gender-based violence adopted with USAID assistance
- Ratio of female to male beneficiaries of USAID programming who move from informal to formal employment
- Ratio of female to male beneficiaries of USAID programming who transition to what they report to be better employment conditions (for example, with benefits such as health insurance, pension scheme, or self-employment)

Occupational and Vertical Segregation

- Number of protectionist measures that restrict women's involvement in specific work sectors repealed with USAID assistance
- Number of newly registered firms, disaggregated by sex of owner, that benefit from USAID-supported reduction in government requirements of business enterprises [note: this might be split into multiple indicators depending on the reforms sought]
- Number of investments in businesses in strategic sectors supported through USAID programming, disaggregated by sex of business owner
- Ratio of value of investments in female-owned businesses to value of investments in male-owned businesses supported through USAID programming
- Ratio of female to male beneficiaries participating in networking opportunities in targeted or non-traditional sectors after participating in a USAID project
- Ratio of female to male beneficiaries receiving mentoring support and internship opportunities in targeted or non-traditional sectors after participating in a USAID project
- Number of female beneficiaries of USAID programming who obtain employment in targeted sectors in technical/managerial roles

Education & Training

- Number of education reform initiatives supported by USAID that result in public-private partnerships between education institutions and employers
- Ratio of women to men in USAID-supported workforce development programs, disaggregated by sector

PART 3 – KEY RESOURCES FOR THE LABOR MARKET SECTOR

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GUIDANCE NOTE 9

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, and compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES IN THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP SECTOR

According to the World Bank, across Eastern Europe and Central Asia (which includes USAID's E&E region¹⁶⁴), one in three entrepreneurs is a woman.¹⁶⁵ Entrepreneurship is a critical factor in increasing and creating employment and driving economic growth for both men and women. However, as reflected in the labor market trends across the region, there are serious gaps in terms of the size, growth, and access to resources between male- and female-owned firms in all markets. The following gender-based issues exist in the region:

Cultural & Social Constraints: Negative views about women's ability to excel in business leadership roles and pervasive beliefs about gendered domestic roles can hold women back from starting their own businesses or from working in certain sectors. Balancing work and family responsibilities (the double burden), combined with the lack of child care, are among the primary limits on female entrepreneurship.¹⁶⁶

Motivation (necessity versus opportunity): Women's motivation for becoming entrepreneurs differs from men's and more often emerges from necessity (providing for their families) rather than opportunity (entrepreneurial drive). Often, women look to entrepreneurship as a means of providing for their families while also continuing to manage the household.¹⁶⁷ Compared to other regions of the world, where about half of men and women report opportunity as the motivation, only 25-45 percent of women entrepreneurs in E&E region do.¹⁶⁸

Business Characteristics (size, scale & type): Women are more likely to be sole owners of microenterprises or be self-employed rather than own a small or medium enterprise (SME). Proportionally, more women participate in the informal economy than men. Women are also often concentrated in service industries that use less capital, only serve the local market, are more competitive, which depresses prices firms can charge for goods and services and keeps the average firm's sales smaller.¹⁶⁹ Further, women entrepreneurs in the region also frequently face greater obstacles in dealing with regulatory requirements than their male counterparts, for example, business registration, permit applications,

164. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

165. Sarosh Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women in Emerging Europe and Central Asia* (Washington, DC: The World Bank, 2012), accessed January 31, 2015 at <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/2800/659310WVP00PUBL065737B0Gender0Report.pdf?sequence=1>.

166. Cornelia Rotaru, *Women's Business Associations, Experiences from Around the World: Central and Eastern Europe* (Washington, DC: CIPE, 2010).

167. Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Armenia* (Washington, DC USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010).

168. Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women in Emerging Europe and Central Asia*.

169. Shwetlana Sabarwal and Katherine Terrell, *Does Gender Matter for Firm Performance? Evidence from Eastern Europe and Central Asia*, Policy Research Working Paper No. 4705 (Washington, DC: World Bank, 2008).

government inspections, and payment of taxes, which may keep women entrepreneurs in the informal sector and deny them growth and funding opportunity that would be available in the formal sector.¹⁷⁰

Education, Training & Experience: Women in the E&E region are less likely to have formal business education, training, or experience than men. Lack of prior experience can mean less knowledge of how to manage a business successfully or how to deal with financial institutions.¹⁷¹

Lack of Access (capital, credit, technology and networks): Women involved in entrepreneurship receive less start-up capital, have less access to credit and as a result cannot afford new technology to grow their businesses. They are also less likely to join business associations or access business networks or contacts that are typically geared towards men.¹⁷²

Enabling Environment: A key factor in the growth and scalability of enterprises into small businesses with employees is becoming formalized. Because more entrepreneurs are men, even gender-blind business support measures do not support women's enterprise development to the extent that they support male-owned firms. Focusing efforts specifically on women's enterprise development, and measuring their impact, is therefore a growing concern for governments and for advocacy organizations.¹⁷³ Also, the practice of entrepreneurship in the region has developed during the transition to a free market economy, resulting in several constraints that impact the business environment. However, assessments of business regulations rarely examine differential impacts on male-owned and female-owned businesses.

170. Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women in Emerging Europe and Central Asia*.

171. European Training Foundation, *Inform: Training for Women Entrepreneurs: An Imperative for Growth and Jobs* (Turin: ETF, March 2013, accessed on January 31, 2015, at [http://www.etf.europa.eu/webatt.nsf/0/541576CCB06E2F1EC1257B28004846C2/\\$file/INFORM_14_Women%20entrepreneurs.pdf](http://www.etf.europa.eu/webatt.nsf/0/541576CCB06E2F1EC1257B28004846C2/$file/INFORM_14_Women%20entrepreneurs.pdf)).

172. Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women in Emerging Europe and Central Asia*.

173. Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute, *The Gender Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index (GEDI) - A 17-country pilot analysis of the conditions that foster high-potential female entrepreneurship*, (Washington, DC: GEDI, 2013), 4.

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP SECTOR

A key step before identifying GSIs for the sector would be determining the legal definition of an “entrepreneur” if one exists for each country or defining one if one does not exist. It is also important to determine how people who work in the informal economy are included (if at all) in this definition. Definitions vary across regions and countries and may include concepts such as owners, managers, self-employed, and employers. A female entrepreneur can refer to someone who has started a one-woman business, to someone who is a principal in a family business or partnership, or to someone who is a shareholder in a publicly held company she runs.¹⁷⁴

Data collection should start in National Statistics Offices (NSOs) where regularly compiled employment data are maintained. It is common for a country to measure self-employment as a key indicator for entrepreneurial activity. Together with the number and share of women and men employers, this is the indicator most used by statistics offices to report sex-disaggregated information on entrepreneurship. The USG Standard Indicators should also be used to identify measures of competitiveness (4.6), business enabling environment (4.6.1), workforce development (4.6.3), and gender (GNDR-2).

GSIs for entrepreneurship could also measure progress toward two of the outcomes described in the GE/FE Policy:

- Reduce gender disparities in access to, control over and benefit from resources, wealth, opportunities and services – economic, social, political and cultural.
- Increase capability of women and girls to realize their rights, determine their life outcomes, and influence decision-making in households, communities and societies.

Below is a list of illustrative GSIs by issue:

Cultural and Social Constraints:

- Percentage of male and female target population who agree with the statement “Women are as capable as men of starting their own business”
- Number of child care facilities supported as part of a USAID intervention
- Number of USAID-supported public events/activities promoting female entrepreneurs as role models

Entrepreneurial Motivation:

- Percentage of programs targeted towards women entrepreneurs that build skills in good business practices (time management, human resource management, financial management)
- Ratio of female to male project beneficiaries who express interest in formalizing/legalizing their business after USAID-supported training
- Ratio of women to men business owners who separate their personal and business finances after USAID-supported training
- Ratio of women to men business owners who develop a human resources plan after USAID-support training

174. C. Giovannelli, H. Gunnsteinsdottir, and A. Me, *The Status of Statistics on Women and Men’s Entrepreneurship in the UNECE Regions* (Geneva: UNECE., 2007), <http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/stats/gender/web/pdfdocs/Women%20and%20Men%20and%20Entrepreneurship.pdf>.

- Ratio of women to men business owners who indicate an interest in hiring more staff after USAID-supported training

Business Characteristics:

- Number of women business owners registering businesses following USAID intervention
- Number of women business owners applying for and receiving permits or passing inspections following USAID intervention
- Ratio of female to male beneficiaries starting businesses concentrated in industries that are capital-intensive, disaggregated by sector
- Ratio of female to male project beneficiaries starting businesses concentrated in industries that serve the global market, disaggregated by sector
- Ratio of women-owned/operated to men-owned/operated businesses benefitting from USAID programming that hire more staff, disaggregated by sector
- Ratio of female to male project beneficiaries expanding their businesses (opening a new branch, offering more products or services, increasing volume of sales), disaggregated by sector

Education, Training & Experience:

- Ratio of women-owned to men-owned micro, small and medium sized enterprises (MSMEs) receiving business support services to apply for financing, disaggregated by sector
- Ratio of women-owned/operated to men-owned/operated firms receiving assistance to improve business management, disaggregated by sector
- Ratio of female to male project beneficiaries receiving workplace training through internship/apprenticeship programs, disaggregated by sector
- Ratio of women to men partnered with role mentors through USAID-supported programming, disaggregated by sector
- Ratio of female owned/operated new ventures to male owned/operated new ventures participating in USAID-supported incubator services

Lack of Access:

- Ratio of female to male project beneficiaries submitting credit applications after USAID-supported training
- Ratio of female to male project beneficiaries receiving start-up capital as a result of their credit applications
- Ratio of female to male project beneficiaries actively participating in professional business organizations in their sector
- Number of female project beneficiaries actively participating in professional women's business organizations

Enabling Environment:

- Number of financial lending packages targeting women-owned businesses available from banks as a result of USAID assistance
- Number of the 11 core commercial laws analyzed by USAID-supported legal analyst for gendered impacts and in support of female business owner/operators

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP

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ANNEX 2: USAID / US DEPARTMENT OF STATE STANDARDIZED INDICATORS FOR PRIVATE SECTOR COMPETITIVENESS & ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY ¹⁷⁵

4.6	4.6 Private Sector Competitiveness
4.6-1	Global Competitiveness Index
4.6.1	4.6.1 Business Enabling Environment
4.6.1-14	Number of municipal regulations and administrative procedures that have been simplified as the result of USG assistance
4.6.1-15	Number of commerce laws and regulations simplified and implemented in accordance with international standards as a result of USG assistance
4.6.1-16	Person hours of training completed in business enabling environment supported by USG assistance
4.6.1-17	Number of days of USG funded technical assistance in business enabling environment provided to counterparts or stakeholders
4.6.1-18	Formal sector employment as a percent of total employment
4.6.2	4.6.2 Private Sector Capacity
4.6.2-9	Number of private sector firms that have improved management practices as a result of USG assistance
4.6.2-10	Number of firms receiving USG assistance to invest in improved technologies
4.6.2-11	Person hours of training completed in private sector productive capacity supported by USG assistance
4.6.2-12	Number of days of USG funded technical assistance in private sector productive capacity provided to counterparts or stakeholders
4.6.2-13	Percentage of firms that have achieved improved technologies as a result of USD assistance
4.6.3	4.6.3 Workforce Development
4.6.3-2	Number of persons receiving new employment or better employment (including better self-employment) as a result of participation in USG-funded workforce development programs
4.6.3-7	Share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sector
4.6.3-8	Number of workforce development initiatives completed as a result of USG participation in public-private partnerships
4.6.3-9	Person hours of training completed in workforce development supported by USG assistance
4.6.3-10	Number of days of USG funded technical assistance in workforce development provided to counterparts or stakeholders
4.7	4.7 Economic Opportunity
4.7-4	Prevalence of households with moderate or severe hunger
4.7-5	Commercial Bank Accounts per 1,000 adults
4.7.1	4.7.1 Inclusive Financial Markets

¹⁷⁵ Available from <http://www.state.gov/f/indicators/>.

4.7.1-12	Total number of clients (households and/or microenterprises) benefiting from financial services provided through USG-assisted financial intermediaries, including non-financial institutions or actors
4.7.1-13	Number of financial intermediaries supported by USG assistance
4.7.1-14	Percent of microfinance institutions (MFI) showing a positive return on average assets (ROA)
4.7.1-15	Person hours of training completed by management and/or staff of financial intermediaries supported by USG assistance
4.7.1-16	Number of days of USG funded technical training provided to management and/or staff of financial intermediaries
4.7.2	4.7.2 Policy Environment for Micro and Small Enterprises
4.7.2-8	Number of improvements in laws and regulations affecting the registration and operation of micro or small enterprises drafted with USG assistance
4.7.2-9	Number of improvements in laws and regulations affecting the registration and operation of micro or small enterprises enacted with USG assistance
4.7.2-10	Person hours of training completed by policymakers regarding the registration and operation of micro or small enterprises supported by USG assistance
4.7.2-11	Number of days of USG funded technical training in registration and operation of micro or small enterprises provided to counterparts or stakeholders
4.7.3	4.7.3 Strengthen Microenterprise Productivity
4.7.3-6	Number of microenterprises supported by USG enterprise assistance
4.7.3-7	Percent change in value of input purchases by micro entrepreneurs (or smallholders)
4.7.3-8	Person hours of training completed by employees of microenterprises supported by USG assistance
4.7.3-9	Number of days of USG funded technical assistance provided to employees of microenterprises
4.7.4	4.7.4 Inclusive Economic Law and Property Rights
4.7.4-4	International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) Access to Land Indicator
4.7.4-5	Number of households who have obtained documented property rights as result of USG assistance
4.7.4-8	Person hours of training completed by government officials, traditional authority, or individuals related to land tenure and property rights supported by USG assistance
4.7.4-9	Number of days of USG funded technical assistance on land tenure and property rights issues provided to counterparts or stakeholders
4.7.4-10	Number of specific pieces of legislation or implementing regulations proposed, adopted, and/or implemented affecting property rights of the urban and rural poor as a result of USG assistance
4.7.4-11	Number of individuals trained in land tenure and property rights as a result of USG assistance
4.7.4-12	Number of disputed land and property rights cases resolved by local authorities, contractors, mediators, or courts as a result of USG assistance

4.7.4-13	Number of land administration and service entities, offices, or other related facilities that the project technically or physically establishes or upgrades as a result of USG assistance
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GUIDANCE NOTE 10

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR EDUCATION

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES IN THE EDUCATION SECTOR

Education is a critical component of development, offering knowledge, skills, and tools to help prepare younger generations to improve society and quality of life. The Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region¹⁷⁶ has achieved near gender parity in the enrollment of boys and girls at both primary and secondary levels. At the tertiary level a gender gap appears in enrollment with women's enrollment exceeding that of men in every country.¹⁷⁷ Though these statistics reflect equality in access to education at the primary and secondary levels, a number of significant gender issues remain, both within the education system itself and in the impact of the system on men and women in school and beyond. The high prevalence of gender bias in educational policies, teacher training, teaching and learning materials, and staffing has not been sufficiently assessed, and therefore addressed. Neither pre-service nor in-service teachers are trained in gender-sensitive teaching strategies.¹⁷⁸

Persistence through tertiary. Though the E&E region has achieved equal access to compulsory education for males and females, and few countries report any differences greater than one percentage point for male and female enrollment, dropout or repetition at the primary and lower secondary levels.¹⁷⁹ Nominally, in primary and early secondary grades more male students repeat grades than female students, however repetition rates do not exceed 2 percent in any E&E country for either primary or lower secondary levels.¹⁸⁰ While dropout rates are quite low across most of the region (1-5%) for both male and female students, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Montenegro have reported high dropout rates from 16 to 20 percent in recent years for both male and female students at the primary level; in Montenegro, dropout rates at the lower secondary level are similar, with the most recent rates being reported at 21 percent for girls and 22 percent for boys (2011).¹⁸¹ The greatest divergence in education enrollment is at the tertiary level, where women comprise more than 50 percent of university enrollees in every country in the region (from 51.5% in Azerbaijan to 57.2% in Belarus for the last year reported).¹⁸²

176. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

177. UNICEF Regional Office for CEE/CIS, "TransMonEE 2014 Database, Tertiary enrollment data 2012/2013" (Geneva: UNICEF, 2014), www.transmonee.org.

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179. UNESCO Institute for Statistics, "Education Data" (Montreal: UIS, 2015), <http://data.uis.unesco.org/Index.aspx?queryid=156>.

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Highly feminized teaching profession and male policy makers. Throughout the region, the lower levels of the education system are dominated by women who comprise more than 70 percent of primary teachers and more than 60 percent of secondary teachers.¹⁸³ Some women hold positions of school principals, though not nearly at the same rates as teachers.¹⁸⁴ In contrast, men hold the majority of higher-level, professional posts which are higher paying and more highly respected, such as professors, and administrators.¹⁸⁵ Men hold the majority of positions with the authority to establish educational policies, select text books, design and manage pre- and in-service teacher training, adopt curriculum, and determine the recruitment, promotions, salaries and bonuses of educators. The lack of or low numbers of male teachers in primary and secondary classrooms can lead girls and boys to believe that classroom-level educational service is women's work, thus reinforcing the trend of men not entering it and girls seeking it out later in life as a primary choice of profession.¹⁸⁶ This cycle perpetuates the dearth of male role models for young boys in the classroom, potentially feeding into performance issues and/or dropout rates.¹⁸⁷ In a system where men are long entrenched in positions of authority and women implement their decisions, gender equality in the teaching profession remains a challenge.

Gender stereotypes in curricula, teaching materials. Textbooks and other educational materials reinforce traditional male and female roles in text and images at all levels of the education system. According to Blumberg, gender bias in textbooks is an especially important problem because “textbooks occupy ~80 percent of classroom time and...it may contribute to lowering girls’ achievements...[it] involves nearly identical patterns of under-representation of females, plus stereotypes of both genders’ occupational and household roles that overwhelmingly underplay women’s rising worldly importance.”¹⁸⁸ Blumberg further explains that the gender-biases portrayed in textbooks follow similar trends worldwide: females are underrepresented, and females and males are “shown in highly gender-stereotyped ways in the household as well as in the occupational division of labour, and in the actions, attitudes and traits portrayed.”¹⁸⁹ Students may be further encouraged by teaching staff to study courses in traditionally male or female subjects, perpetuating such stereotypes. Some improvements have been made such as the inclusion of human rights topics in primary levels, though the integration of gender equality into the mainstream curriculum remains rare. The trend extends to universities where only a small number offer degrees in gender studies.

Gender stereotypes influence fields of study. “The notion of segregated categories of work derived from home life extends into education and employment in the region.”¹⁹⁰ Such societal stereotypes might influence girls and boys in their choice of fields of study. Divergences between what are traditionally male and female subjects are more apparent at the secondary level. Perhaps due to pressures of what is

183. Except in Republic of Macedonia where the reported percentage of female teachers was approximately 54 percent.

184. WikiProgress.Stat (using data from UNESCO Institute for Statistics), “Percentage of female teachers”, accessed March 20, 2014. Retrieved from http://stats.wikiprogress.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FEMALE_TEACHERS#.

185. Duban, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia*.

186. Duban, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia*.

187. E. Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Armenia* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2010), accessed October 30, 2014, http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PDACR978.pdf.

188. Rae Lesser Blumberg, *The Invisible Obstacle to Educational Equality: Gender bias in textbooks* (Paris: UNESCO, 2008). Accessed March 21, 2014. Retrieved from: <http://lib.scnu.edu.cn/ngw/ngw/xwbk/The%20invisible%20obstacle%20to%20educational%20equality%20gender%20bias%20in%20textbooks.pdf>

189. Blumberg, *The Invisible Obstacle to Educational Equality*, 34.

190. Blumberg, *The Invisible Obstacle to Educational Equality*, 7.

considered socially acceptable within their societies, boys gravitate toward technical and scientific subjects, where young women move toward the humanities such as social services, healthcare, education, and accounting. Due to the technical nature of TVET institutes and the fact that the curriculum and resulting job prospects are seen as more masculine, they have higher enrollments of male students. Some experts suggest removing implicit and explicit barriers, such as gender-specific recruitment and career tracking, to the participation of both women and men in non-traditional vocations.¹⁹¹

Women's higher levels of educational attainment do not result in better employment opportunities. In addition to focusing on fields of study that lead to higher paid employment, young men tend to leave school earlier to seek work while young women remain in school. Although women attain higher levels of education, it is often in fields such as the arts, humanities and social sciences, which do not lead to better paid jobs as compared to those in the fields of science, mathematics and information technology. As the unemployment rate is high among youth throughout the region, men with technical skills are better able to compete for jobs.

191. Blumberg, *The Invisible Obstacle to Educational Equality*, xiv.

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR THE EDUCATION SECTOR

Promoting gender equality in education remains a top priority and interventions that target girls or boys should be based on sound gender analyses, meet identified needs or demands, bring about systemic improvements, and work to transform the power dynamics between the sexes.

USAID's 2011 Education Strategy calls on all Missions to design and develop gender-sensitive interventions "tailored to the specific gender issues present in a country's educational system."¹⁹² This strategy requires USAID education programs to take measures to increase gender equality and female empowerment at all levels of education, with gender-sensitive¹⁹³ interventions tailored to the specific gender issues present in a country's educational system. Potential indicators include the following:

Persistence through tertiary

- Gap between female and male enrollment in primary, secondary, or tertiary education
- Gap between female and male primary completion in USAID intervention schools
- Ratio of female to male secondary, tertiary, or TVET completion rates in USAID intervention schools
- Repetition rates for students in primary and secondary grades in USAID intervention schools, disaggregated by sex
- Ratio of female to male literacy rates in a given age cohort
- Performance of students on global performance tests (where data are available), disaggregated by sex (e.g., PISA, PIRLS, TIMSS)
- Performance of students on locally benchmarked assessments pre- and post-USAID intervention, disaggregated by sex (e.g., early grade reading assessments, early grade math assessments, national standardized tests)
- Gap between male and female dropout rates in primary and secondary grades in USAID intervention schools

Highly feminized teaching profession, male policy makers, and impact on performance

- Ratio of female to male primary and secondary teachers
- Ratio of male to female professors
- Gap between the salaries of female and male teachers
- Number of female teachers trained for administrative and management roles through USAID intervention
- Percentage of female teachers trained for administrative and management roles entering administrative and management positions following USAID intervention
- Ratio of females to males who would like to become teachers following USAID intervention
- Ratio of female to male administrators at the tertiary level
- Ratio of girls to boys in primary or secondary school reporting being encouraged by teacher and/or career counselors (if they exist) to pursue careers in the sciences and/or managerial roles through a USAID intervention

192. USAID, *Education: Opportunity Through Learning* [USAID Education Strategy 2011-2015] (Washington, DC: USAID, 2011), retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/Pdacq946.pdf.

193. USAID, *Education: Opportunity Through Learning*.

Gender stereotypes in curricula, teaching materials

- Percentage of textbooks and other teaching/learning materials, both in text and images, which demonstrate gender stereotypes
- Percentage of updated textbooks that have undergone gender analysis with USAID support, disaggregated by grade or level of education
- Number of schools using gender-sensitive textbooks (i.e., they do not reinforce gender stereotypes; illustrations show women and men working together, etc.) as a result of USAID support

Gender stereotypes influence fields of study

- Percentage of youth who believe they can succeed in fields of study typically dominated by the opposite sex following USAID intervention, disaggregated by sex
- Percentage of youth studying in a field considered traditional to the opposite sex following USAID intervention, disaggregated by sex
- Number of international research studies undertaken on gender disparities in the education system in the country/region to measure ongoing influence of gender stereotypes

Women's higher levels of educational attainment do not result in higher level employment opportunities

- Number of women's rights or youth organizations with active campaigns to encourage girls/women to pursue higher level careers
- Rate of increase in women who applied for/hold managerial positions in educational institutions or the Ministry of Education compared to men
- Percentage of women hired for managerial positions in educational institutions or the Ministry of Education compared to men

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES FOR EDUCATION

World Atlas of Gender Equality in Education , UNESCO (2012). Available from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002155/215522E.pdf>.

Teachers: A Regional Study on Recruitment, Development and Salaries of Teachers in the CEECIS Region, UNICEF CEECIS (2011). Available from http://www.unicef.org/ceecis/CEECIS_teachers_ENGLISH.pdf.

Promoting Gender Equality in Education, UNESCO Bangkok (2009). Available from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001864/186495e.pdf>

Gender Integration in Program Design, Monitoring & Evaluation: A Sectoral Approach, World Vision (2010). Available from <https://communities.usaidallnet.gov/st/sites/st/file/World%20Vision%20gender%20indicators%20sectoral%202010.pdf>

Working Paper Series on the Transition Countries No. 2: Education in Eastern Europe and Eurasia, USAID (2005). Available from <http://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1863/%232%20Education%20in%20Eastern%20Europe%20and%20Eurasia.pdf>

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GUIDANCE NOTE 11

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR HIV/AIDS

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES AND HIV/AIDS

The number of new HIV infections among adults has been increasing in the E&E region¹⁹⁴ after a slight decrease in the early 2000s.^{195,196} In 2012, highest rates of newly diagnosed infections in the region were reported by Ukraine (37.1 percent) and Moldova (21.3 percent).¹⁹⁷ The rate of AIDS cases has also increased by almost 95 percent from 2006 to 2012 in the region.¹⁹⁸ The high and increasing number of AIDS cases in the region is indicative of late HIV diagnosis, low treatment coverage, and delayed initiation of life-saving HIV treatment. Across countries, a common factor is that HIV is highly concentrated among injecting drug users, sex workers, and men who have sex with men (MSM).¹⁹⁹ These groups are designated as key populations for preventing further spread of HIV. Early in the epidemic, men were the predominant group infected with the disease; however, the number of women infected has increased substantially in the region. The chart below outlines estimated numbers of women and men with HIV over 15 years old in Europe and Eurasia.

Table 11.1. Estimated Number of Persons with HIV in E&E

	Total population <15 with HIV (range low-high)	Women (range low-high)	Men (range low-high)
1990	24,000- 75,000	9,700 – 34,000	14,300 – 41,000
2012	990,000- 1,600,000	340,000 – 550,000	650,000 - 1,050,000

Source: Calculated based on UNAIDS, *HIV estimates with uncertainty bounds 1990-2012*

194. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

195. UNAIDS, *Global Report: UNAIDS report on the global AIDS epidemic 2013* (Geneva: UNAIDS, 2013), 13, accessed April 30, 2014, http://www.unaids.org/en/media/unaids/contentassets/documents/epidemiology/2013/gr2013/UNAIDS_Global_Report_2013_en.pdf.

196. Increasing trend in the number of newly diagnosed infections should not be assessed without noting the simultaneous increase of 81% in the number of HIV tests performed in region.

197. European Center for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC)/WHO Regional Office for Europe, *HIV/AIDS surveillance report in Europe 2012* (Stockholm: European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, 2013), viii, accessed April 15, 2014, http://www.euro.who.int/_data/assets/pdf_file/0018/235440/e96953.pdf.

198. ECDC/WHO Regional Office for Europe, *HIV/AIDS surveillance report in Europe 2012*.

199 C. Semaille et al., "The HIV infection in Europe: large East-West disparity," *Eurosurveillance* 8. 3 (2003): 403, accessed April 15, 2014, <http://www.eurosurveillance.org/ViewArticle.aspx?ArticleId=403>.

Stigma and discrimination: Many people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWH) in the E&E region experience regulatory, social, and environmental barriers to service access, the realization of their rights, and ability to practice health seeking behavior – and few pursue redress through legal channels. For women, “the possibility of stigma and discrimination, abuse and violence” deter their seeking health services and/or HIV testing.²⁰⁰ Further, the UNAIDS report found that “country policies and resource allocation are particularly lagging behind in key aspects of a comprehensive effort to overcome gender inequality: engaging men and empowering women, as well as providing services to help women fulfil their sexual and reproductive needs and rights and to access HIV prevention and other HIV services.”²⁰¹ The key populations identified above are particularly vulnerable owing to their increased physical exposure to HIV/AIDS and high levels of discrimination and stigma, as discussed below.

Stigma attached to drug use: While the number of infections through injecting drug use decreased by 15 percent from 2006 to 2012, it remains the second most dominant mode of HIV transmission in the region.²⁰² In 2012, 36 percent of the newly reported adult/adolescent HIV cases were attributed to injecting drug use in Ukraine. Because of the stigma attached to drug use, many governments continue to oppose funding or even allowing harm reduction programs despite clear evidence of significant beneficial impacts.²⁰³ In an attempt to deter drug use, many countries implemented severe penalties for drug-related crimes, including possession of small amounts of drugs and drug dependence, and enacted mandatory detention sentences that in some cases prevent people from receiving the treatment they need.²⁰⁴

In the case of women, policies that result in registration of drug users discourage them from accessing services because registration can lead to loss of child custody.^{205,206} Incarceration affects women disproportionately compared to men as well; incarcerated women are more likely to share injecting equipment, and they experience a higher rate of HIV infection.²⁰⁷ While a few harm reduction programs in prisons have been in place since 2006, none are reported to be available yet to female prisoners. In Georgia, for example, some prisons for men provide methadone treatment, but women’s prisons do not.²⁰⁸ Pregnant women face further challenges. For example, primary care physicians and antenatal care

200. UNAIDS, *Global Report: UNAIDS report on the global AIDS epidemic 2013*, 81.

201. UNAIDS, *Global Report: UNAIDS report on the global AIDS epidemic 2013*, 82.

202. ECPDC/WHO Regional Office for Europe, *HIV/AIDS surveillance report in Europe 2012*.

203. S. Mclean, F. Wong, and S. Konopka, *HIV, Drug Use and the Global Fund: Don't Stop Now* (Hove: International HIV/AIDS Alliance, 2012), accessed April 30, 2014, <http://canadianharmreduction.com/sites/default/files/HIV%20%20Harm%20Reduction%20and%20the%20Global%20Fund%20-%20Don%27t%20Stop%20Now!.pdf>.

204. UNAIDS. *Global Report: UNAIDS Report on the Global AIDs Epidemic 2013*.

205. Acacia Shields, *The Effects of Drug User Registration Laws on People's Rights and Health: Key Findings From Russia, Georgia, and Ukraine*, (New York: Open Society Foundation, 2009), 14, accessed May 8, 2014, http://www.opensocietyfoundations.org/sites/default/files/drugreg_20091001.pdf.

206. The Global Coalition on Women and AIDS, *Women who use drugs, harm reduction and HIV* (Geneva: The Global Coalition on Women and AIDS, n.d.), 4, accessed April 30, 2014, <http://womenandaids.net/CMSPages/GetFile.aspx?guid=b59f24b2-6f04-4592-b78e-cea9813f6aef>.

207. K. Burns, *Women, Harm Reduction and HIV: Key findings from Azerbaijan, Georgia, Russia and Ukraine* (New York: Open Society Institute, 2009), accessed April 30, 2014, http://www.opensocietyfoundations.org/sites/default/files/wmhreng_20091001.pdf.

208. S. Pinkham, *Women and Drug Policy in Eurasia* (London: European Harm Reduction Network, 2010).

providers in Ukraine are generally uninformed on issues of drug use and pregnancy and the use of opioid substitution treatment (OST) for pregnant substance users.²⁰⁹ Because of tight regulations on the storage and provision of methadone and buprenorphine, hospitals in Ukraine until 2010 were unable to administer these medications to OST patients, including women in maternity wards.²¹⁰ Female injecting drug users also face increased stigma from medical providers compared with male injecting drug users.

Discrimination against MSM: The number of HIV infections acquired through sex between men in the region has increased almost fourfold from 2006 to 2012, and the rate of increase is steeper than that of other transmission modes. MSM in the region are severely discriminated against, even in countries where homosexuality has been decriminalized. For example in Ukraine, MSM are treated as people with pathological mental deviations and there is decreasing support for equal rights for all people.²¹¹ MSM in prisons can face high levels of discrimination from prison staff and inmates and may not be included in HIV/AIDS prevention or treatment programs.²¹² Due to fear of discrimination, most MSM might indicate that their source of infection was through injecting drugs or heterosexual contact and may have wives or girlfriends who they may be putting at risk for HIV infection. The under-reporting further provides governments with little reason to invest more in treatment coverage for MSM. MSM are highly stigmatized, limiting the ability of MSM NGOs to operate openly.

Vulnerability due to sex work: The HIV prevalence among female sex workers (SW) in Eastern Europe is 11 percent.²¹³ Program evaluations found that condom use and HIV testing vary by country. Countries such as Ukraine reported a high rate (92 percent) of female SWs using a condom with their last client.²¹⁴ High numbers of SWs tested and receiving results in the last 12 months were also reported in Ukraine (59 percent).²¹⁵ HIV prevalence among female SWs who inject drugs is significantly higher compared to female SWs who do not inject drugs (40.5 percent vs. 6.4 percent, respectively, according to one study).²¹⁶ Sex workers are at risk of HIV often as a result of both injecting drug use as well as unprotected sex with multiple sexual partners. SWs also face violence from the police, partners, and clients, which increases their risks of HIV transmission and limits their

209. N. Kostenko, et al. "From policy to practice: case study of HIV testing programs for pregnant women in Ukraine." XVIII International AIDS Conference, Vienna, 2010.

210. S. Pinkham and A. Shapoval, *Making Harm Reduction Work for Women: The Ukrainian Experience* (New York: Open Society Institute, 2010), accessed April 30, 2014, http://www.opensocietyfoundations.org/sites/default/files/harm-reduction-women-ukraine_20100429.pdf.

211. Chris Beyrer, Andrea L. Wirtz, Damian Walker, Benjamin Johns, Frangiscos Sifakis, and Stefan D. Bara, *The Global HIV Epidemics among Men Who Have Sex with Men*, (Washington DC: World Bank, 2011), 71, accessed May 1, 2014, http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2011/06/02/000386194_20110602055746/Rendered/PDF/622610PUB0glob01476B0extop0ID018726.pdf.

212. AMFAR, Global Forum on MSM and HIV (MSMGF), *Lessons from the Front Lines: effective community-led responses to HIV and AIDS among MSM and transgender populations* (New York: AMFAR, 2010), 11, accessed May 9, 2014, http://www.amfar.org/uploadedFiles/_amfarorg/Around_the_World/Lessons-Front-Lines.pdf.

213. WHO, *Global update on HIV treatment 2013: Results, Impact and Opportunities* (Geneva: WHO, 2013), accessed May 1, 2014, http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/85326/1/9789241505734_eng.pdf.

214. UNAIDS. *Report on the Global Epidemic 2012*, A32-A33.

215. UNAIDS. *Report on the Global Epidemic 2012*, A34-A35.

216. ECPDC/WHO Regional Office for Europe, *HIV/AIDS surveillance report in Europe 2012*.

ability or agency to request help or access services. Male sex workers are harder to track and to reach, and have often been overlooked in sex worker programming and data collection.²¹⁷

Stigmatization of transgender people (TG): Human rights organizations have focused particular attention on discrimination against TG people as one of the most vulnerable groups in Europe, calling it a clearly “bleak situation [that] calls for urgent measures.”²¹⁸ Mainstream invisibility of TG populations makes it difficult for these individuals to be reached with needed services. They are often also neglected in policy work. For example, the Health Policy Project’s policy recommendations²¹⁹ published for the 2014-2018 period for Ukraine do not include recommendations for the TG population. Because of the stigmatization of TG populations, prevention and care programs are underfunded and may focus only on delivering prevention services and not on the other parts of a comprehensive approach to address HIV and sexual health. Furthermore, TG women are often grouped with MSM for HIV service programs even though their HIV prevention, treatment, and care needs are substantially different. Discrimination in the workplace often drives TG individuals to the sex work industry making them vulnerable to violence from police and clients and at greater risk for HIV.²²⁰

Spread of HIV through heterosexual contact: The number of reported HIV infections acquired through heterosexual contact doubled from 7,014 cases in 2006 to 14,589 in 2012 and is the dominant reported mode of transmission. However, the data on the *source* of the infection for heterosexual contact is sparse. In Georgia where this information was known for 34 percent of cases, 45 percent of infections were from partners who injected drugs. This kind of information is crucial in determining the source and in implementing strategies to help women and men.²²¹ Overall, men remain disproportionately affected by the epidemic and in a few countries this is the case even among people infected through heterosexual transmission, suggesting that male labor migrants as well as possible misclassification of men infected through sex with other men may contribute to the increase in heterosexually acquired cases in those countries. On average, however, women account for the majority of heterosexual infections pointing towards potential ongoing transmission from males who inject drugs and male labor migrants to their female partners. And, the number of children infected through mother-to-child transmission has increased fivefold, from a reported 67 in 2006 to 326 in 2012.

The USG has been working in select countries in the region to address some of these issues. PEPFAR (*President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief*) has established guidelines and strategies to reach these most-at-risk populations, as well as to ensure that gender equity and gender equality are fully integrated in HIV prevention, care, and treatment programs and services.

217. Aengus Carroll, *Testing the Waters: LGBT People in the Europe & Eurasia Region*, (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), accessed May 9, 2014, http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnaec993.pdf.

218. Thomas Hammarberg, *Human Rights and Gender Identity* (Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 2009), accessed October 1, 2014, <https://wcd.coe.int/ViewDoc.jsp?id=1476365>.

219. A. Dutta et al., *Lives on the Line: Funding Needs and Impacts of Ukraine’s National HIV/AIDS Program, 2014 – 2018* (Washington, DC: Futures Group, Health Policy Project, 2013), accessed May 9, 2014, http://www.healthpolicyproject.com/pubs/320_UkraineGoalsFINAL.pdf.

220. Carroll, *Testing the Waters*.

221. ECPDC/WHO Regional Office for Europe, *HIV/AIDS surveillance report in Europe 2012*.

PART 2 – GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR HIV/AIDS SECTOR

Since PEPFAR funding supports all USAID HIV interventions in the region, which requires reporting on standardized indicators for all countries (see PEPFAR Monitoring, Evaluation, and Reporting Indicator Reference Guide), the indicators below are largely drawn from the standardized indicators and recent USAID publications on integrating LGBT rights into USAID programming. Those selected were chosen for their relevance to the specific issues and types of programming in the E&E region. Moreover, some data that might be useful to measure progress in gender equality (such as proportion of all women compared to the proportion of all men seeking services) may not be readily available because total populations of people living with HIV or injecting drugs users are unknown (although estimates and projections may be helpful). Many programs in the region are also implemented by NGOs, which may have limited access to data beyond their own programs and beneficiaries.

Sample GSIs for relevant issues to HIV/AIDS programs include the following.

Stigma attached to drug use:

- Number of PWIDs reached with individual and/or small group level HIV preventive interventions that are based on evidence and/or meet the minimum standards required, disaggregated by sex
- Number of injecting drug users benefitting from community-based outreach services, disaggregated by sex
- Number of PWIDs on medication assisted therapy for at least six months, disaggregated by sex
- Number of PWIDs participating in needle and syringe programs, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of health workers in the maternal health sector trained in medication assisted therapy
- Percent of pregnant drug users with access to medication assisted therapy
- Number of prisoners who inject drugs reached with individual and/or small group level HIV preventive interventions that are based on evidence and/or meet the minimum standards required, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of PWIDs with HIV newly enrolled in HIV clinical care who start isoniazid preventative therapy, disaggregated by sex
- Number of PWIDs with HIV newly receiving anti-retroviral therapy, disaggregated by sex
- Number of PWIDs with HIV currently receiving anti-retroviral therapy, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of PWIDs reporting fear of bad treatment (due to key population identity and HIV positive status) at health facilities, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of injecting drug users (who receive service from USAID-sponsored programs) that report feeling shame as a result of their drug use, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of injecting drug users (who receive service from USAID-sponsored programs) that report feeling shame as a result of their HIV status, disaggregated by sex
- Number of laws adopted to remove barriers to harm reduction services including evidence informed medication assisted therapy and needle and syringe programs
- Number of laws adopted to enforce the protection of drug users' confidentiality, including the reform or removal of any existing compulsory drug registration systems

Discrimination against men who have sex with men (MSM):

- Percent of health workers who have attended training on MSM sensitivity, disaggregated by sex
- Number of MSM reached with individual and/or small group level HIV preventive interventions that are based on evidence and/or meet the minimum standards required

- Percent of MSM with HIV indicating that they have access to condoms
- Percent of MSM using condoms at last anal intercourse
- Percent of MSM who received HIV Testing and Counseling and received their test results
- Percent of MSMs with HIV newly enrolled in HIV clinical care who start isoniazid preventative therapy
- Number of MSM with HIV newly receiving anti-retroviral therapy
- Number of MSM with HIV currently receiving anti-retroviral therapy
- Percent of MSM reporting fear of bad treatment (due to key population identity and HIV positive status) at health facilities
- Percent of MSM (who receive service from USAID-sponsored programs) that report feeling shame as a result of their sexual behavior
- Percent of MSM (who receive service from USAID-sponsored programs) that report feeling shame as a result of their HIV status

Vulnerability due to sex work:

- Number of sex workers reached with individual and/or small group level HIV preventive interventions that are based on evidence and/or meet the minimum standards required, disaggregated by sex
- Number of sex workers who received HIV Testing and Counseling and received their test results, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of sex workers with HIV indicating that they have access to condoms, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of sex workers reported use of condoms at last intercourse, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of sex workers with HIV newly enrolled in HIV clinical care who start isoniazid preventative therapy, disaggregated by sex
- Number of sex workers with HIV newly receiving anti-retroviral therapy, disaggregated by sex
- Number of sex workers with HIV currently receiving anti-retroviral therapy, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of sex workers reporting fear of bad treatment (due to key population identity and HIV positive status) at health facilities, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of sex workers (who receive service from USAID-sponsored programs) that report feeling shame as a result of their sexual behavior, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of sex workers (who receive service from USAID-sponsored programs) that report feeling shame as a result of their HIV status, disaggregated by sex
- Number of HIV awareness, treatment, and prevention services targeted towards sex workers disaggregated by whether targeted towards male, female, and transgender sex workers

Stigmatization of transgender persons (TG):

- Proportion of health workers who have completed training on HIV challenges for transgender populations, disaggregated by sex
- Number of transgender persons reached with individual and/or small group level HIV preventive interventions that are based on evidence and/or meet the minimum standards required, disaggregated by sex
- Number of transgender persons who received HIV Testing and Counseling and received their test results, disaggregated by sex

- Percent of transgender persons with HIV newly enrolled in HIV clinical care who start isoniazid preventative therapy, disaggregated by sex
- Number of transgender persons with HIV newly receiving anti-retroviral therapy, disaggregated by sex
- Number of transgender persons with HIV currently receiving anti-retroviral therapy, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of transgender persons reporting fear of bad treatment (due to key population identity and HIV positive status) at health facilities, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of transgender persons (who receive service from USAID-sponsored programs) that report feeling shame as a result of their sexual behavior, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of transgender persons (who receive service from USAID-sponsored programs) that report feeling shame as a result of their HIV status, disaggregated by sex
- Number of HIV awareness, prevention, and treatment services targeted towards transgender populations

Spread of HIV through heterosexual contact:

- Proportion of individuals with HIV receiving treatment, disaggregated by sex
- Proportion of females with HIV reporting having sexual relations with men with HIV
- Proportion of females with HIV reporting having sexual relations with men who inject drugs
- Proportion of females with HIV reporting having sexual relations with men who are migrant workers
- Increase in PMTCT (prevention of mother to child transmission) coverage
- Number of HIV prevention programs directed towards migrant workers
- Proportion of females with HIV reporting having sexual relations with MSMs
- Proportion of pregnant women with HIV

PART 3 – KEY RESOURCES FOR HIV/AIDS

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GUIDANCE NOTE 12

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR TUBERCULOSIS

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions as well as adapt and validate indicators in specific country contexts.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES IN TUBERCULOSIS ERADICATION

TB remains a serious concern for women globally with over three million women contracting the disease annually. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that half a million women die in the E&E region²²² annually from TB. The transition from communism to democratic governance and the subsequent privatization of health services in the E&E region has had a heavy impact on the incidence of tuberculosis (TB) in the region. Striking increases have occurred in Eastern Europe (mainly the former Soviet republics) since the mid-1980s, although trends in case notifications²²³ suggest that the rate of increase has slowed significantly since the mid-1990s.²²⁴ TB infection rates in the E&E region vary widely with Albania reporting 13.3 incidences per 100,000 in 2010 while the Republic of Moldova reported 118.2 incidences per 100,000 in the same year. The European region taken as a whole reported a rate of 33.27 per 100,000 during the same period.²²⁵ The WHO report from 2013 however indicates that the highest levels of multi-drug resistant TB (MDR-TB) are found in Eastern Europe and Central Asia, where in some countries more than 20 percent of new TB cases and more than 50 percent of those previously treated for TB have MDR-TB.²²⁶

Gender specific challenges with respect to TB in the region are listed below:

Gender norms and increased susceptibility. While it is clear that chronic conditions resulting in a weakened immune system, such as diabetes, increase susceptibility to TB,²²⁷ despite much research, the question remains unresolved as to whether or not men are more susceptible to TB due to biological differences or differences in behavioral exposure (such as smoking). However, gender norms often dictate that women become the primary care-givers to family members who suffer from TB, which exposes them to the disease. It is therefore important to consider this burden in programming decisions and ensure that women are informed about how to reduce spread of infection.

Gender differences in TB detection. It is unclear if women present differently with TB disease and are not adequately detected or diagnosed with TB due to an increased likelihood to be sputum smear negative

222. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

223. The case notification rate refers to new and recurrent episodes of TB notified to WHO for a given year, expressed per 100,000 population.

224. WHO, *Global Tuberculosis Control: Surveillance, Planning, Financing*, (Geneva: WHO, 2008), accessed April 15, 2014, http://www.who.int/tb/publications/global_report/2008/en/.

225. WHO Regional Office for Europe, *European Health for All Database (HFA-DB)* (Geneva: WHO, 2013), accessed April 11, 2014, <http://data.euro.who.int/hfad/>.

226. WHO, *Global Tuberculosis Report 2013*, (Geneva: WHO, 2013), accessed April 15, 2014, http://www.who.int/tb/publications/global_report/en/.

227. WHO, *Global Tuberculosis Report 2013*.

or extra-pulmonary TB cases. However, a number of studies also suggest that responses to illness differ in women and men, and that barriers to early detection and treatment of TB vary (and are probably greater) for women than for men.²²⁸ It is thus important to consider the impact of social and cultural context of gender on TB detection, diagnosis and treatment outcomes, including differences in rural and urban environments.²²⁹

Gender differences in case notification rates. Globally, more men are notified with tuberculosis (TB) than women. In fact, over 60 percent more men are reported with TB, compared to women.²³⁰ In the E&E region, 80 percent more men than women were reported with new and relapsed TB in 2010.²³¹ TB infection rates in the E&E region typically vary by gender with many countries reporting a male to female ratio among TB cases greater than 2:1 in 2012;²³² the highest gender imbalance reported is among those aged 45 to 64 years. Women are most susceptible during their child-bearing years.²³³ In a report from 2014, there were significantly more men (69 percent) than women (31 percent) among Extended MDR-TB (XDR-TB) patients in the region.²³⁴ This gender difference in TB case notification most likely reflects the overrepresentation of males in the various TB risk groups, notably the homeless, prisoners, seasonal migrant workers, people living with HIV among men who have sex with men (MSM) and people who inject drugs (PWID).²³⁵

Lack of low-cost services for TB treatment. In the E&E region, direct out-of-pocket expenses are common for TB diagnostic and treatment services, both official and unofficial (e.g., for presumptive TB case until TB is diagnosed). TB is most prevalent among those who are suffering from poverty which compounds barriers to receiving treatment and increases the challenge to preventing its transmission among families and communities. As women are overrepresented among the ranks of the poor, it is important to examine gender differences in TB. The disease adds financial burden in terms of expenses related to diagnosis and treatment costs even when anti-TB medication is provided for free. For those that can afford it, 'under-the-table' payments to physicians are widespread in order to receive prompt attention and quality care. These additional costs are substantial to the patients and households in most instances and can represent a major barrier to accessing needed TB services.

228. P. Hudelson, "Gender differentials in tuberculosis: the role of socio-economic and cultural factors," *Tubercle and Lung Disease* 77, no. 5 (October 1996): 391-400. PubMed PMID: 8959141.

229. M.G. Weiss, J. Sommerfeld, and M.W. Uplekar, "Social and cultural dimensions of gender and tuberculosis," *International Journal of Tuberculosis and Lung Disease* 12, no. 7 (July 2008): 829-30. PubMed PMID: 18544212.

230. S.E. Ottmani and M.W. Uplekar, "Gender and TB: pointers from routine records and reports," *International Journal of Tuberculosis and Lung Disease* 12, no. 7 (July 2008): 827.

231. European Center for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO Regional Office for Europe, *Tuberculosis surveillance and monitoring in Europe 2014* (Stockholm: European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, 2014), accessed April 15, 2014, <http://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/publications/Publications/tuberculosis-surveillance-monitoring-Europe-2014.pdf>.

232. European Center for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO Regional Office for Europe, *Tuberculosis surveillance and monitoring in Europe 2014*.

233. Fidelma Rigby, "Tuberculosis and Pregnancy: Update on an Old Nemesis," *Infections in Medicine* 17 (2000), accessed April 15, 2014, <http://www.medscape.com/viewarticle/410045>.

234. J.L. De Beer et al., "Molecular surveillance of multi- and extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis transmission in the European Union from 2003 to 2011," *Eurosurveillance* 19 (March 2014): 1-9, accessed April 15, 2014, <http://www.eurosurveillance.org/images/dynamic/EE/V19N11/art20742.pdf>.

235. European Center for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO Regional Office for Europe, *HIV/AIDS surveillance report in Europe 2012*, (Stockholm: European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, 2013), accessed April 15, 2014, <http://ecdc.europa.eu/en/publications/Publications/hiv-aids-surveillance-report-2012-20131127.pdf>.

Gender differences in TB treatment. Studies also show that once provided access to treatment women tend to be more adherent and are more likely to successfully complete treatment.^{236,237} In Armenia, for example, it was found that being a woman was related to an increased likelihood of being cured of MDR-TB.²³⁸ Yet, in some settings, women are more likely to delay seeking treatment compared to men, due in part to obstacles to accessing health services, including perceived stigma related to TB diagnosis.^{239,240,241} Another consideration is the treatment time, during which patients tend to be hospitalized for at least two months after diagnosis with TB, which has particularly complicated consequences for women who have primary responsibility for childcare and household duties. On the other hand, high relapse rates among men suggest that issues such as men's access to health services, ability to follow treatment protocols, and behavioral differences based on notions of masculinity should be studied further. In the E&E region, migration for labor is a common phenomenon, with the majority of migrants being men. These migrants often live in overcrowded, poorly ventilated housing with limited access to health care.²⁴² In order to provide vulnerable men with better TB prevention and treatment options health care services in prisons, among drug clinics, and HIV treatment centers should be coordinated to include testing and treatment for TB.

236. M.W. Uplekar et al., "Attention to gender issues in tuberculosis control," *International Journal of Tuberculosis and Lung Disease* 5, no. 3 (March 2001): 220-4. PubMed PMID: 11326820.

237. D. Somma et al., *Gender in tuberculosis research*, (Geneva: WHO, 2004), 24, accessed April 15, 2014, <http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/43085/1/9241592516.pdf>.

238. Dr. Laura Gillini, personal communication, April 15, 2014.

239. G.D. Gosoni, et al., "Gender and socio-cultural determinants of delay to diagnosis of TB in Bangladesh, India and Malawi," *International Journal of Tuberculosis and Lung Disease* 12, no. 7 (2008): 850.

240. F. Karim et al., "Gender differences in delays in diagnosis and treatment of tuberculosis," *Health Policy and Planning* 22, no. 5 (2007): 329-334. doi: 10.1093/heapol/czm026.

241. Weiss, Summerfeld, and Uplekar, "Social and cultural dimensions of gender and tuberculosis," 830.

242. P. Allotey and M. Gyapong, "Gender in tuberculosis research," *International Journal of Tuberculosis and Lung Disease* 12, no. 7 (2008): 831-836, accessed April 15, 2014, <http://cdrwww.who.int/tdr/publications/documents/gender-tb-research.pdf>.

PART 2 - GENDER SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR TUBERCULOSIS

An initial consideration when choosing an indicator includes US Congressional mandates for reporting. The United States Congress passed the Tom Lantos and Henry J. Hyde United States Global Leadership Against HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria Reauthorization Act of 2008 in which the USG goals and targets for TB control were clearly stated. It provides the framework for the USG TB program goals and objectives for 2009-2014, which include:

- Successfully treating 2.6 million new sputum smear-positive TB patients under Direct Observed Treatment Short-course (DOTS) programs by 2014, primarily through support for needed services, commodities, health workers and training, and additional treatment through coordinated multilateral efforts; and,
- Diagnosing and initiating treatment of at least 57,200 new MDR TB cases by 2014 and providing additional treatment through coordinated multilateral efforts.

This requires that data be reported for USG-supported TB programs related to progress in achieving the above-mentioned targets for TB and MDR TB cases. These data are routinely collected and reported by National TB Programs (NTPs) personnel and includes the sex of the patient.

Illustrative gender-sensitive indicators to measure progress in addressing the identified key gender issues are listed below:

Health Systems Positioned to Address TB

- Ratio of health care professionals trained in DOTS/Stop TB strategy, disaggregated by sex
- Percent of family planning services, child immunization clinics, antenatal care units integrating TB screening isoniazid preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education, disaggregated by location (rural vs. urban)
- Percent of women accessing services in family planning services, child immunization clinics, antenatal care units integrating TB screening isoniazid preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education diagnosed with TB, disaggregated by location (rural vs. urban) of clinic
- Percent of health care clinics in areas with high HIV burden integrating TB screening isoniazid preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education, disaggregated by location (rural vs. urban)
- Ratio of men to women accessing health care in clinics integrating TB screening isoniazid preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education, disaggregated by location (rural vs. urban)
- Number of drug counseling and treatment centers that integrate TB screening, preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education, disaggregated by location (rural vs. urban)
- Ratio of men to women accessing drug counseling and treatment centers that integrate TB screening, preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education, disaggregated by location (rural vs. urban)
- Number of prisons that integrate TB screening, preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education with the health care provided to inmates

TB Detection

- Ratio of sputum smear positive cases for males to females
- Ratio of smear negative cases for males to females

- Ratio of extra-pulmonary cases for males to females

Case Notification and Reporting

- Ratio of males reporting MDR TB cases to females reporting MDR TB cases.
- Proportion of persons reporting MDR TB cases to total TB cases, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Ratio of males reporting XDR TB cases to females reporting XDR TB cases.
- Proportion of persons reporting XDR TB cases to total TB cases, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Proportion of new TB cases reported to overall TB cases reported, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Proportion of relapsed TB cases reported to overall TB cases reported, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Percent of TB suspects bacteriologically confirmed as cases, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Ratio of TB cases in males with HIV to TB cases in females with HIV
- Proportion of persons with HIV reporting TB to total number of persons reporting TB, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Ratio of diabetic males with TB to diabetic females with TB.
- Proportion of persons with diabetes reporting TB to total number of persons reporting TB, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Ratio of men to women diagnosed with TB in clinics integrating TB screening isoniazid preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education, disaggregated by location (rural vs. urban)
- Ratio of men to women diagnosed with TB at drug counseling and treatment centers that integrate TB screening, preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education
- Ratio of men to women diagnosed with TB at prisons
- Ratio of men to women diagnosed with TB at prisons integrating TB screening, preventive therapy, TB treatment, and education with the health care provided to inmates
- Number of TB patients with history of labor migration, disaggregated by sex
- Proportion of TB-related deaths recorded to the TB cases reported, disaggregated by sex

TB Treatment

- Proportion of TB-related deaths following treatment to the TB cases reported, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Proportion of TB cases successfully treated to TB cases reported, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Proportion of MDR-TB cases diagnosed and started treatment, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Proportion of MDR-TB cases successfully treated to MDR-TB cases reported, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)
- Proportion of XDR-TB cases successfully treated to XDR-TB cases reported, disaggregated by sex and location (rural vs. urban)

PART 3 – KEY RESOURCES FOR TUBERCULOSIS

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Mukund Uplekar, Sheela Rangan, and Jessica Ogden, *Gender and Tuberculosis Control: Towards a Strategy for Research and Action*, (Geneva: WHO, 1999). Accessed on April 15, 2014. Retrieved from: http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/2000/WHO_CDS_TB_2000.280.pdf

USG, *Lantos-Hyde United States Government Tuberculosis Strategy*, (Washington, D.C.: USAID, CDC, PEPFAR, DHHS, NIH, DoD, 2010). Accessed on April 15, 2014. Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PDACP707.pdf

M.G. Weiss, J. Sommerfeld, and M.W. Uplekar, “Social and cultural dimensions of gender and tuberculosis,” *International Journal of Tuberculosis and Lung Disease* 12, no. 7 (July 2008):829-30. PubMed PMID:18544212.

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GUIDANCE NOTE 13

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR DISABILITY INCLUSIVENESS

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - KEY ISSUES/GAPS DISABILITY INCLUSIVENESS

The World Report on Disability, published jointly by the World Health Organization (WHO) and the World Bank in 2011, estimates that over one billion people, or about 15 percent of the world's population are people with disabilities. This is significantly higher than previous estimates. Disability rates vary significantly based on factors such as gender, education, and access to health care and rehabilitation services. In all countries, disability rates are significantly higher among groups with lower economic status, underscoring the link between poverty and disability.²⁴³

Disabling barriers contribute to the disadvantages experienced by people with disabilities in all countries, and result in poorer health, lower levels of education, and less economic participation, which, in turn lead to higher rates of poverty and increased dependency, and restricted participation or exclusion from many aspects of community life. For women and girls with disabilities, these barriers are compounded due to the heightened discrimination and exclusion they face on account of their gender. It is likely that exclusion is even greater for women and girls with disabilities who are also of certain ethnic minorities, members of the LGBT community, and/or other marginalized populations. The following are some common gender and disability issues that exist in many countries²⁴⁴ in the E&E region:

Lack of comprehensive data on gender issues and disability. Developing global estimates of disability prevalence is particularly difficult as disability is often missing from national survey and census data, and when it is included, data cannot be compared to that of World Health Survey or Global Burden of Disease estimates because “there is no consistent approach across countries to disability definitions and survey questions.”²⁴⁵ There are also issues with surveys only counting individuals officially registered as having a disability, the way in which disability data are collected, the instruments used, and other such issues which impact the quality of data collected.²⁴⁶ Further, some disabilities can be overlooked by diagnostic tests, making it even more difficult to garner an accurate picture from data alone.²⁴⁷ Therefore, how and the extent to which disability affects men and women differently is not well understood. The stigma attached to disability also means that many people do not identify themselves as disabled, especially those with psychosocial disabilities.

243. The World Report on Disability notes “most developing countries report disability prevalence rates below those reported in many developed countries, because they collect data on a narrow set of impairments, which yield lower disability prevalence estimates.” World Health Organization and World Bank, *World Report on Disability* (Geneva: World Health Organization and World Bank, 2011), 25.

244. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

245. World Health Organization and World Bank, *World Report on Disability*, 29.

246. World Health Organization and World Bank, *World Report on Disability*, 29.

247. World Health Organization and World Bank, *World Report on Disability*, 29.

Little to no representation in the public sphere. A primary goal of USAID Democracy, Human Rights and Governance (DRG) programming in elections and political processes is to strengthen political processes by ensuring that elections are free and fair and that citizens have the opportunity to choose their representatives at all levels of governance. Persons with disabilities often face many challenges around participation in public political activities, such as language of participation (e.g., if sign language is required, whether the language is in local dialect), or whether accommodations are made for persons with intellectual and psychosocial disabilities to ensure they can participate. Similarly, even in political processes, women and men with disabilities may not be able to vote, especially if they are blind or are considered unfit because of a diagnosis of mental or psychological illness. There are a number of barriers often experienced by women in accessing and participating in political processes which are compounded for women with disabilities. Documentation requirements for voter registration tend to be prohibitive for most people with disabilities, and particularly for women with disabilities, in many countries as they require significant travel and long waits that interfere with women's domestic responsibilities, child care needs, work schedule, or inability to travel.²⁴⁸ This is particularly relevant when “65-70 percent of women with disabilities in low and middle-income countries live in rural areas” making it difficult to access polling locations.²⁴⁹ Additional obstacles for women with disabilities' participation include low literacy levels making it difficult to educate themselves on current issues, and cultural norms that promote proxy voting and dependence on families, particularly for women with disabilities.²⁵⁰

Lack of accessibility in public spaces and to public services. All citizens are supposed to benefit from the public spaces and public services provided by government. However, funding and planning are often inadequate to address the needs of all citizens, and accessibility for persons with disabilities is rarely the highest priority. Older government office buildings and transportation mechanisms have largely not been retrofitted to be made accessible and compliant with accessibility standards. In newer plans for urban spaces, the needs of people with disabilities are seldom represented. The USAID Policy on Sustainable Service Delivery in an Increasingly Urbanized World attempts to address this gap by instructing project teams to prioritize disability considerations in planning urban service projects and recommending Missions “highlight ways in which local government laws and policies can ensure persons with disabilities full access to public buildings, facilities, and transportation systems.”²⁵¹ Persons with disabilities seeking medical care may also face physical barriers, inaccessible equipment for examinations, or medical personnel's inadequate skill and knowledge about managing conditions related to disabilities. In many cases, women with disabilities may be disproportionately affected by lack of access given their more frequent use of and interaction with public services (for more information, see Guidance Note 4).

Limited access to quality educational opportunities. Children with disabilities are disproportionately denied the right to education. In the E&E region, gaps in enrollment rates between children with disabilities and

248. NDI and IFES, *Equal Access: How to Include Persons with Disabilities in Elections and Political Processes* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2014). Accessed October 30, 2014. Retrieved from: https://www.ndi.org/files/Equal-Access_How-to-include-PWD-in-elections-political-processes.pdf

249. Plan, *Fact Sheet: Violence Against Women and Girls Factsheet*, (Washington, DC: Plan, 2013), 1. Accessed October 31, 2014. Retrieved from: http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/csw/csw57/side_events/Fact%20sheet%20%20VAWG%20with%20disabilities%20FINAL%200.pdf

250. NDI and IFES, *Equal Access: How to Include Persons with Disabilities in Elections and Political Processes*.

251. USAID, *Sustainable Service Delivery in an Increasingly Urbanized World, USAID Policy* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2013), 23. Accessed October 30, 2014. Retrieved from: <http://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1870/USAIDSustainableUrbanServicesPolicy.pdf>

children without disabilities ranges from 15 to almost 40 percentage points.²⁵² They face many barriers in accessing mainstream education systems, and consequently have little or no education.²⁵³ Therefore, it is not surprising that people with disabilities are less likely to be literate, and often face high rates of unemployment. Girls with disabilities face compounded barriers including: traditional gender roles combined with the stigma of having a disability; greater difficulty accessing schools due to isolated living environments, poor hygiene and sanitation at the schools, and teacher prejudice and lack of training in inclusive education. Furthermore girls with disabilities are often “caught in a cycle of poverty and exclusion: girls become the caregivers to their siblings rather than attend school, for example, or the whole family may be stigmatized, leading to their reluctance to report that a child has a disability or to take that child out into the public.”²⁵⁴ Effective gender-sensitive monitoring of disability inclusiveness requires comparisons to be drawn between the position of persons with disabilities and their non-disabled peers and between men and women, boys and girls. Addressing the gaps in school enrollment on the basis of disability type – physical, mental, sensory, intellectual – among children with disabilities who are in school is important to ensuring equity in educational access. While basic education programs have long measured school enrollment and have disaggregated that data on the basis of sex and other factors, measuring the enrollment of children with disabilities has been seriously limited.²⁵⁵

Civil society networks and resources do not meet the needs of persons with disabilities. Programs designed to strengthen citizen engagement with government and with each other, support democratic political culture, and mobilize constituencies are vital for both gender and disability inclusion. Often, implementing partners are inexperienced in building the capacity of disabled people’s organizations (DPOs)²⁵⁶ and often exclude them from their civil society programs. DPOs are wrongly assumed to focus exclusively on service-provision and may be excluded from participation in CSO advocacy activities on law and policy change. DPO non-participation in CSO development programming reinforces limited capacity and jeopardizes DPO participation in development programming across all sectors. Also, there is little interaction between disabled people’s organizations (DPOs) in the region and women’s rights organization such that disabled women’s issues are not represented in the women’s rights movements and data collection is not coordinated across various sectors. This limits participation of women with disabilities in programs and services. Civil society meetings are often held in inaccessible locations and information-sharing components of civil society programming do not provide access for persons with disabilities, such as sign language interpretation, or make accommodations for blind persons. The increase over time in the participation of women and men with disabilities in civil society programming may indicate an increased focus on disability equality and signal successful outreach to DPOs generally. However, gender differences remain at the leadership level in DPOs; the leadership of disabled people’s organizations is predominantly male across the region.

252. World Health Organization and World Bank, *World Report on Disability*.

253. UNESCO, *Education for All Global Monitoring Report: Reaching the Marginalized* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010). See also UNICEF, *Children Out of Sight, Out of Mind, Out of Reach* (New York: UNICEF, 14 December 2005), http://www.unicef.org/media/media_30453.html.

254. UNICEF, *Children with Disabilities* (New York: UNICEF, 2013), 29. Accessed November 1, 2014. Retrieved from: http://www.unicef.org/sowc2013/files/SWCR2013_ENG_Lo_res_24_Apr_2013.pdf

255. Deon Filmer, “Disability, Poverty and Schooling in Developing Countries: Results From 14 Household Surveys,” *World Bank Economic Review* 22 (2008): 141-163.

256. DPOs are organizations where people with a disability have the majority control of board membership. DPOs serve the needs of disabled persons in a variety of ways including: advocating, evaluating services, identifying needs and priorities, providing a voice, and advocating for change and public awareness. DPOs may have a particular focus, such as on a particular diagnosis or population, or may work across many disabilities. (People With Disability Australia. “Disabled People’s Organizations (DPOs),” accessed October 30, 2014, <http://www.pwd.org.au/student-section/disabled-people-s-organisations-dpos.html>)

Lack of autonomy over fertility and other health decisions. Conditions impacting human health, such as poverty, lack of education, and poor and unsanitary living conditions, have a disproportionate effect on persons with disabilities, and may further disadvantage women and girls with disabilities on account of their reproductive capacity and vulnerability to violence and sexual abuse. In some areas, forced sterilization of women and girls with disabilities has been identified as a practice that is claimed as an attempt to manage health concerns or serve as preventative measure,²⁵⁷ however this violent act has been identified as a human rights violation by Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).²⁵⁸ The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) specifically recognizes the importance of gender-sensitive health services and the need for equal access to sexual and reproductive health and population-based health programs as these are areas in which persons with disabilities are commonly excluded. Examining practices in this area can point to disparities in decision-making and control over reproductive and fertility matters between women and men in general, but also particularly among women and men with disabilities and their non-disabled peers. Access to family planning and reproductive health services is often denied to women with disabilities. Further, facilities may be difficult to access and healthcare providers insufficiently trained to work with women with disabilities.²⁵⁹ The information needed to obtain this data can be obtained by ensuring that questionnaires or surveys capture disability status and are distributed not only at health centers and women's health clinics but also DPOs, social care homes and service providers targeting persons with disabilities.

Few formal protections for girls and women with disabilities. Inasmuch as legal frameworks often lack adequate coverage of gender equality issues, legal frameworks are particularly insensitive to the rights of persons with disabilities, whether women, men, or children. There is a need to examine the domestic laws and policies specifically designed to address gender equality and assess whether or not such laws and policies include a disability dimension. Such a review could yield data suggesting a greater awareness of disability issues generally and signal awareness of the impact of gender discrimination on women and girls with disabilities, or it might reveal insensitivity to the interplay of gender and disability issues. The development and reform of laws and policies that are both gender and disability inclusive can also indicate a more inclusive legal framework and one that is consonant with international human rights standards protecting men, women and children, including individuals with disabilities. While this will not assess the impact of law and policy frameworks or the processes by which they were developed, it is an important element of measuring gender and disability equality.

Lack of economic opportunities. Lack of access to resources is frequently cited as a major impediment to gender equality and women's empowerment yet is particularly pronounced for women and men with disabilities. Men with disabilities may not be considered fit to earn a living to support a family and may not be included in programs for workforce development. On the other hand, only a quarter of persons

257. E.K. Tomasovic, "Robbed of Reproductive Justice: The necessity of a global initiative to provide redress to Roma women coercively sterilized in Eastern Europe," *Columbia Human Rights Law Review* 41 (2010): 765-823; International Disability Alliance, *IDA Submission to the CRPD Committee's General Discussion on women and girls with disabilities* [17 April 2013, 9th session].

258. Open Society Foundation, *Sterilization of Women and Girls with Disabilities, a Briefing Paper* (Budapest: Open Society Foundation, 2011). Accessed November 1, 2014. Retrieved from: <http://www.opensocietyfoundations.org/sites/default/files/sterilization-women-disabilities-20111101.pdf>

259. L. Alvares et al., "Reproductive Health Justice for Women with Disabilities," *Barbara Faye Waxman Fiduccia Papers on Women and Girls with Disabilities* (Washington, DC: Center for Women Policy Studies, 2011). Accessed November 1, 2014. Retrieved from: http://www.centerwomenpolicy.org/programs/waxmanfiduccia/documents/BFWFP_ReproductiveHealthJusticeforWomenwithDisabilities_NOWFoundationDisabilityRightsAdvisor.pdf

with disabilities with jobs are women. Women face barriers to employment including demand in traditionally male-dominated occupations, lack of support from families, and traditional family roles. Examining information in this area is important to measure the participation of women with disabilities in USG-supported programs that provide access to economic opportunity. A gender-sensitive disability inclusive approach to economic empowerment initiatives is needed because such programs often fail to reach women or meet their needs and are often inaccessible to women with disabilities on account of stigma, discrimination, lack of information and other barriers. Tracking the proportion of females among participants in USG-funded interventions designed to increase access to economic resources, and disaggregating that data by disability, can provide information on the scope of USG efforts to lift women with disabilities out of poverty.

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) TO MEASURE DISABILITY INCLUSIVENESS

The most important international instrument to guide the collection of gender-sensitive data regarding disabilities is the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD), adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2006, which has been signed by the US and ratified by all countries in the E&E region.²⁶⁰ The CRPD specifically incorporates gender considerations into all State obligations, requiring, for example, that data concerning women and girls with disabilities be collected to facilitate implementation of treaty obligations²⁶¹ (see for example Article 31). Even with those obligations, however, many challenges remain in collecting gender-sensitive data related to disability.

Challenges in collecting gender-sensitive data on disability. The collection of gender data that is sensitive to disability is challenging on several fronts. First disability-specific data of any kind is historically, across countries, difficult to find. Second, disability is a broad and cross-cutting concept that is subject to various definitions in different sectors. Disability as defined or as interpreted in electoral law, for example, may relate to one category of individuals with disabilities. Its meaning or understanding in the context of social protection may be another. Finally, the diversity of disability itself makes the formulation of indicators challenging as one set of disability-specific indicators may have meaning for assessing only one segment of the disability population while ignoring another.

Disaggregation of information on the basis of disability. Appropriate disaggregation is a critical factor for any process that is sensitive to disability inclusion. The selection of indicators sensitive to gender and disability equality requires an understanding that persons with disabilities are not a homogenous group and that women, girls, men and boys with disabilities may be affected by an intervention in different ways. One of the principal difficulties in measuring outcomes for persons with disabilities is the identification of those people to be classified as having a disability. While various levels of disaggregation may be important depending on the nature and context of a program, (e.g., race, ethnicity, area of residence, sexual orientation, literacy level), disaggregation as to disability can have significant implications for measurement. The CRPD does not provide an exhaustive definition of a ‘person with a disability’ but suggests in Article 1 that: “Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others.” Disaggregation on the basis of physical, mental, sensory and intellectual disability can helpfully signal, for example, the differential impact of physical barriers on women and girls with physical disabilities in school enrollment or the impact of communication barriers for deaf women in accessing health care services.

Opportunities for data collection. The regular Census and other national social household surveys are key sources of data and offer opportunities for collecting a range of information relevant to the contexts within which people with disabilities live. Disabled People’s Organizations are key resources in data collection and may be able to provide existing data and participate in M&E design and implementation, including the selection of appropriate indicators.

260. The following countries within the E&E region where USAID has a presence have ratified the CRPD: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Montenegro, Russia, Serbia, and Ukraine. . Belarus, Kosovo, the Republic of Macedonia and Moldova have yet to ratify the treaty. For a complete list of CRPD ratifications, see <http://www.un.org/disabilities/countries.asp?navid=12&pid=166>

261. See, for example, Article 31 “Statistics and Data Collection” <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CRPD/Pages/ConventionRightsPersonsWithDisabilities.aspx#31>

Suggested indicators for the key issues discussed below are the following.

Lack of comprehensive data on gender issues and disability

- Ratio of women reporting disabilities to women without reported disabilities participating in services provided by USAID projects, disaggregated by type of disability
- Ratio of people with disabilities to people without disabilities participating in USAID projects, disaggregated by sex
- Ratio of USAID-supported projects focused on empowering women that include a disability component
- Percentage of population targeted by USAID programming reporting an increased awareness of the harm caused by negative stereotypes of people with disabilities, disaggregated by sex
- Percentage of population targeted by USAID programming reporting an improved perception of men with disabilities, disaggregated by sex
- Percentage of population targeted by USAID programming reporting an improved perception of women with disabilities, disaggregated by sex

Effective representation in the public sphere

- Percentage of election officials completing gender and disability awareness and sensitivity training, disaggregated by sex
- Number of DPOs and other CSOs supporting disability rights active in political advocacy following USAID-supported capacity building or training
- Number of candidates for elected office addressing disability rights issues after completing USAID-supported capacity building or training, disaggregated by sex

Lack of accessibility in public spaces and to public services

- Percentage of USAID-supported infrastructure and transport projects that require implementation of accessibility features
- Proportion of people with disabilities to people without disabilities participating in USAID-supported leadership and political participation programs, disaggregated by sex and type of disability
- Proportion of people with disabilities to people without disabilities participating in USAID-supported sexual and reproduction health programs, disaggregated by sex and type of disability
- Proportion of medical personnel who have been trained to deal with the challenges faced by women with disabilities vs. challenges faced by men with disabilities

Access to educational opportunities

- Proportion of girls to boys enrolled in school, disaggregated by type of disability
- Number of teachers trained in inclusive education approaches (teaching methodologies to accommodate different learning needs and styles), disaggregated by sex
- Percentage of teachers completing gender and disability awareness and sensitivity training, disaggregated by sex
- Proportion of schools with accessible hygiene facilities appropriate for boys and girls
- Percentage of students with disabilities with access to appropriate, accessible hygiene facilities, disaggregated by sex and type of disability
- Percentage of students with disabilities receiving transportation support to get to and from school, disaggregated by sex and type of disability

Strengthening of civil society networks and resources

- Number of DPOs and other CSOs supporting both disability rights and gender equality strengthened through USAID-supported capacity building or training
- Proportion of training or networking among women and men representing disability organizations compared to other stakeholder groups

Autonomy over fertility and other health decisions

- Control of women and men over fertility decisions (e.g. number of children, number of abortions, number of sterilizations), disaggregated by disability

Formal protections for girls and women with disabilities

- Number of domestic laws and national policies adopted with USAID support regarding gender equality that address the rights of women/girls with disabilities

Lack of economic opportunities

- Proportion of women with disabilities among female participants in USG-assisted programs designed to increase access to productive economic resources (assets, credit, income or employment)
- Percentage of public sector organizations that adopt policies with USAID assistance that prohibit gender-based and disability-based discrimination, disaggregated by sector
- Number of private sector organizations that have policies with USAID assistance that prohibit gender-based and disability-based discrimination, disaggregated by sector
- Ratio of women with disabilities to men with disabilities who are beneficiaries of USAID-supported workforce development projects

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES FOR DISABILITY INCLUSIVENESS

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Daniel Mont and Mitchell Loeb, [Beyond DALYs: Developing Indicators to Assess the Impact of Public Health Interventions on the Lives of People with Disabilities](#). 2008. Retrieved from: <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/SOCIALPROTECTION/Resources/SP-Discussion-papers/Disability-DP/0815.pdf>

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GUIDANCE NOTE 14

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR THE CHILD WELFARE SECTOR

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I - GENDER ISSUES IN THE CHILD WELFARE SECTOR

Services and policies that promote gender equality and female empowerment are an important part of improving the welfare of vulnerable children and closing the gender gaps in children's services throughout the Europe and Eurasia region.²⁶² Measuring key results of these initiatives requires a review of the gender-sensitive threats and practices and the specific risks to boys and girls. The most common threats to child welfare in this region are poverty, child abandonment, exploitation, and abuse, and these threats often affect boys and girls differently. Globally, the term child welfare is defined to include the health, well-being, and care of children. Historically, child welfare practices in the E&E region have been embedded in the philosophy that the state can care for children better than families and that children do not need their parents. This belief is evident in the prevalence of child institutionalization today, despite research and other evidence that such residential practices are detrimental to children's growth and psychological wellbeing, as well as to society at large.²⁶³ Children without parental care, such as those in institutions, living on the street, or victims of trafficking, are extremely vulnerable to neglect, abuse, exploitation, and violence, lag their peers in cognitive development, and face certain risks based on their gender and the gender of their caregiver.

Some common issues in child welfare in the E&E region include:

- *Institutional care.* The rates of child abandonment and children in formal care are increasing overall and male children are over represented.²⁶⁴ Although several countries have begun deinstitutionalization programs, the full impact of these has not yet been shown in the data available.
- *Living in the streets.* Street children are exposed to violence, drugs, and exploitation. Female street children face the threat of prostitution and sexual tourism, whereas boys, who outnumber girls, tend to be coerced into labor or criminal behavior.²⁶⁵
- *Abuse and neglect.* Child abuse and neglect affects both sexes, but outcomes may differ for boys and girls. Both boys and girls may be more likely to perpetuate violence as adults (boys slightly more so than girls),²⁶⁶ and girls may be more vulnerable to re-victimization.

262. This toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine.

263. The St. Petersburg-USA-Orphanage Research Team, "The Effects of Early Social-Emotional and Relationship Experience on the Development of Young Orphanage Children," *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development* 73 (2008). Retrieved from: <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/mono.2008.73.issue-3/issuetoc>.

264. UNICEF Regional Office for CEE/CIS, *At Home or In a Home? Formal care and adoption of children in Eastern Europe and Central Asia* (Geneva: UNICEF, 2010). Retrieved from <http://www.unicef.org/protection/Web-Unicef-rapport-home-20110623v2.pdf>.

265. World Health Organization, *European Report on Preventing Child Maltreatment* (Copenhagen: WHO, 2013). Retrieved from <http://www.cph.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/European-report-on-preventing-child-maltreatment.pdf>.

- *Sex preferences at birth.* Female children are more likely to be victims of sex-selective abortions or infanticide due to the cultural preference for male children.²⁶⁷
- *Lack of gender sensitive social services.* Social services are often not tailored to gender-specific threats or needs. The profession of social work is highly feminized and lacks prestige. Most social service professionals and institutional caregivers are women.

Children without parental care. Across E&E countries, there are a reported 1.3 million children in residential care, giving this region the highest rate of institutionalization globally.²⁶⁸ Only two to five percent of the children are true orphans (of one or both parents), indicating that more political, economic and social support is needed to keep vulnerable families intact.²⁶⁹ In the E&E region, the rate of children in institutional care continues to increase and this is likely due to factors such as poverty, single parent families (typically single mothers), insufficient social safety net policies, and disability of the child.²⁷⁰ Further breaking down the issues shows that boys are over-represented in institutional care and tend to remain institutionalized longer. This may be due to boys being more likely to leave their families, gender-based perceptions that boys are harder to raise and therefore less likely to be adopted, or the lack of institutions for girls.²⁷¹

Sexual abuse and exploitation. It is clear that there are gender-based patterns in child welfare in E&E countries. For instance, boys are also more likely than girls to live on the streets and boys without parental care have been linked to drug distribution, forced labor, and sexual exploitation.²⁷² Compounding these trends in E&E countries is the lack of social services tailored to the needs of boys. When boys do receive social support services, the providers are almost exclusively women, leaving boys with a lack of positive male role models or workers who share their gendered perspective. Girls without parental care are more likely to be victims of violent life circumstances, prostitution, trafficking, sexual abuse, and sexual tourism.²⁷³

Cultural practices. The nature and prevalence of gender-based child welfare issues varies by region and country and some types of gender-based discrimination and abuse are more predominant in specific areas of the E&E region. For instance, female infanticide and sex selective abortion in the Caucasus, Azerbaijan, and Georgia are common practices and skew gender ratios. This has resulted in estimates ranging from 111-116 boys born to every 100 girls in these countries (2010 data), while globally the ratio is 105-106 boys to 100 girls. The number of abortions performed in the region is also increasing

266. Children's Bureau, *Long-Term Consequences of Child Abuse and Neglect* (Washington, DC: Children's Bureau, 2013). Retrieved from https://www.childwelfare.gov/pubpdfs/long_term_consequences.pdf.

267. UNFPA, *Preventing Gender-biased Sex Selection in Eastern Europe and Central Asia* (Istanbul: UNFPA, 2015). Retrieved from: http://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/resource-pdf/GBSS%20Brief_WEB.pdf.

268. Jean-Claude Legrand, "Child care system reforms in Eastern and Central Europe and Central Asia: Why there is a need to focus on children below three years," *Irish Journal of Applied Social Studies* 15 (2015). Retrieved from: <http://arrow.dit.ie/ijass/vol15/iss2/2>.

269. Legrand, Child care system reforms in Eastern and Central Europe and Central Asia.

270. Elisabeth Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2012). Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNAEA292.pdf.

271. UNICEF Regional Office for CEE/CIS. "At Home or in a Home?" 2010. Available from <http://www.unicef.org/protection/Web-Unicef-rapport-home-20110623v2.pdf>

272. James Martin, *Child Labor in Europe and Central Asia: Problem and Response: An Overview of Selected Countries – A Working Paper* (Geneva: ILO International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour, 2003).

273. Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*.

overall.^{274,275} Sexual exploitation is another child welfare threat with gender-based patterns. A regional study in four E&E countries (Belarus, Moldova, Russia, and Ukraine) found girls and boys to be equally at risk for sexual exploitation,²⁷⁶ but looking specifically at Moldova another study determined 80 percent of trafficking victims are girls.²⁷⁷ Although trends may look similar regionally, findings may vary by country within the E&E region either due to real differences in risk or perhaps due to differences in the availability or quality of data.

274. Paramdzem Hoyhannisyanyan and Aliva Hagverdi, "South Caucasus: Selective Abortion Means Fewer Girls Born," *Institute for War and Peace Reporting Global Voices*, September 30, 2011. Retrieved from: <http://iwpr.net/report-news/south-caucasus-selective-abortion-means-fewer-girls-born>.

275. Arzu Geybullayeva, "Azerbaijan, Seven Sons and One Daughter," *Osservatorio balcani e caucaso*, April 24, 2012. Retrieved from <http://www.balcanicaucaso.org/eng/Regions-and-countries/Azerbaijan/Azerbaijan-seven-sons-and-one-daughter-115820>.

276. ECPAT International, *Regional Overview of Child Sexual Abuse Images through Use of Information and Communication Technologies in Belarus, Moldova, Russia and Ukraine* (Bangkok: ECPAT International, 2008).

277. T. Fomina and R. Viorela, *Overview of the Child Trafficking Phenomenon in the Republic of Moldova 2010* (Chisinau, Moldova: International Center for Women Rights Protection and Promotion, 2010). Trafficking in one form of sexual exploitation that tends to disproportionately affect girls in the E&E region.

PART 2 - GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR THE CHILD WELFARE SECTOR

Data collection in the child welfare sector in the region is inconsistent, and the use of gender-sensitive indicators (GSIs) across countries is atypical, which hinders the ability to make multi-country comparisons. Therefore, a comprehensive examination of child welfare must consider the context of each country individually because currently there is no agreed upon set of GSIs that are globally applicable. Such an in-depth analysis of indicators that are currently being tracked for gender and child welfare will provide a baseline upon which to start collection of relevant data in the future. Ideally, data will be both sex- and age-disaggregated to look at the unique differences among girls, boys, women, and men and different developmental stages of life. Currently, data are collected for issues in child welfare across the region by UNICEF and disseminated through the TransMONEE database. This database contains national-level data for 28 countries since 1989. While useful, these data may be insufficient for project planning, and project monitoring data must be much more granular. Depending on the individual country strategy in the Child Welfare Sector and the objectives and specific program activities within the country, possible GSIs are listed below.

CHILDREN WITHOUT PARENTAL CARE

Institutional care and family alternative placements

- Ratio of boys to girls in institutions, by age
- Ratio of length of institutionalization of boys to girls
- Ratio of adoption rate of boys to girls
- Ratio of boys to girls who are placed in family alternative placements (not institutions), by age and type of care (e.g. kinship care, foster care)
- Percent of children who have been away from home for more than six months in any form of alternative care, disaggregated by sex

Living in the streets

- Number of children under age 18 living in the streets, disaggregated by sex
- Ratio of boys to girls under age 18 living in the streets

SEXUAL ABUSE AND EXPLOITATION

Prostitution

- Number of children under age 18 who have been in prostitution (cash for sex or transactional sex), disaggregated by sex.

Sexual abuse

- Number and percentage of girls under age 18 reporting being victims of sexual abuse
- Number and percentage of boys under age 18 reporting being victims of sexual abuse
- Ratio of boys to girls under age 18 who have been victims of sexual abuse

Sexual tourism and trafficking

- Ratio of boys to girls under age 18 reporting involvement in sexual tourism, disaggregated by role (prostitute, pimp, other)
- Ratio of boys to girls under age 18 who have been trafficking victims
- Ratio of boys to girls under age 18 who have been trafficked for labor
- Ratio of boys to girls under age 18 who have been trafficked for sexual exploitation

Violent crime

- Number of boys and girls under age 18 reporting being the victim of domestic or intimate partner violence, disaggregated by sex
- Ratio of boys to girls under age 18 reporting being the victim of intimate partner violence or domestic violence (including harsh physical punishment by adults in the household)
- Number of girls under age 18 reporting being forced with a weapon into an activity
- Number of boys under age 18 reporting being forced with a weapon into an activity
- Ratio of boys to girls under age 18 reporting being forced with a weapon into an activity

CULTURAL PRACTICES/PREFERENCES

Gender sensitive social services

- Ratio of male to female workers in social services
- Number of programs or services tailored to boys (male-specific prevention efforts or victims' services)
- Number of programs or services tailored to girls (female-specific prevention efforts or victims' services)

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES IN CHILD WELFARE

Case Management Toolkit: A User's Guide for Strengthening Case Management Services in Child Welfare, USAID (2014). Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pa00jzsz.pdf

Emerging Practices in Community-Based Services for Vulnerable Groups. A Study of Social Services Delivery Systems in Europe and Eurasia, USAID (2006). Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADG301.pdf

Evaluation of Implementation of the National Strategy & Action Plan for the Reform of the Residential Childcare System in Moldova 2007-2012. Chisinau: Government of Moldova & UNICEF Moldova (2013). Retrieved from: http://www.unicef.org/evaluation/files/Moldova_2012_003_Evaluation_of_Child_Care_Reform_ENG.pdf

“Finding the Right Balance Between Standardization and Flexibility: A Compendium of Indicators for Measuring Child Wellbeing.” *Child Indicators Research*, 4, 597-618 (2011).

Promising Practices in Community-Based Social Services in CEE/CIS/Baltics. A Framework for Analysis, USAID (2006). Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnadf930.pdf

The Job That Remains: An Overview of USAID Child Welfare Reform Efforts in Europe & Eurasia: Final Report, USAID (2009). Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnado922.pdf

“Transmonee-2012 Database: Key Trends on Children in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia in Graphs,” UNICEF Regional Office for CEE/CIS (2012). Retrieved from: <http://www.slideshare.net/unicefceecis/key-trends-on-children-in-the-ceecis>

Violence Against Women and Girls: A Compendium of Monitoring and Evaluation Indicators, USAID East Africa (2008). Retrieved from: <http://www.cpc.unc.edu/measure/publications/ms-08-30>.

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- Davis, R.T. *Emerging Practices in Community-Based Services for Vulnerable Group. A Study of Social Services Delivery Systems in Europe and Eurasia*. Washington, DC: USAID, 2006. Accessed August 10, 2013. Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnagd301.pdf
- Davis, R.T. *Promising Practices in Community-Based Social Services in CEE/CIS/Baltics. A Framework for Analysis*. Washington, DC: USAID, 2006. Accessed August 8, 2013. Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnadf930.pdf
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- UNFPA. *Preventing Gender-biased Sex Selection in Eastern Europe and Central Asia*. Istanbul: UNFPA, 2015. Retrieved from: http://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/resource-pdf/GBSS%20Brief_WEB.pdf
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- World Health Organization. *European Report on Preventing Child Maltreatment*. Copenhagen: WHO, 2013. Retrieved from <http://www.cph.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/European-report-on-preventing-child-maltreatment.pdf>.

GUIDANCE NOTE 15

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region and gender-sensitive indicators based on a synthesis of literature cited in the *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis*, gender experts' observations and research, compendiums of gender-sensitive indicators, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis across countries so it is good practice to examine these gender issues within specific country contexts and adapt indicators as appropriate.

PART I – GENDER ISSUES AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE IN THE REGION

Despite the lack of standardized and fully comparable data across the E&E region, available information shows that domestic violence (DV) is a widespread and a serious social problem. National-level studies suggest that 20 to 30 percent of women and their children are affected by domestic violence.²⁷⁸ There are several key issues that are relevant to measuring gender violence in the E&E region.

Cultural norms about domestic violence. Within the region, law enforcement and health care providers generally do not view addressing DV as a professional responsibility. In addition, victims are reluctant to come forward or seek prosecution because they may feel shame, blame themselves, or fear being stigmatized.²⁷⁹ Other factors related to the persistence of DV in the region include evolving gender roles in declining economic conditions, the impact of violence and propaganda during periods of crisis and conflict, patterns of alcoholism among men²⁸⁰ and other substance abuse.²⁸¹ DV is aggravated by the marginalization of women based on multiple characteristics (e.g., ethnicity and disability), as well as a lack of adequate housing options in many E&E countries.²⁸²

Prevention and protection. Efforts to prevent and protect against DV often fail to include minority women, specific ethnic groups, women with disabilities, and the LGBT community. Efforts to decrease societal tolerance of DV begin with awareness raising about the extent and meaning of DV and the services available to victims. When victims do seek assistance from the police, social services and health care, health workers are not often sensitized to recognize the signs of DV, interact with victims, or make referrals. Referral mechanisms, where available, are not comprehensive, resulting in a lack of coordinated and efficient support for victims. There is also limited engagement of men in prevention efforts due to a lack of prioritization of male involvement by NGOs, victims, and donors alike, and men's fear of taking a public stance on what is generally seen as a private issue. Projects that engage men in violence prevention have shown that men can positively influence public opinion on DV (e.g., White Ribbon campaigns in Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, and Moldova).²⁸³

The availability and quality of DV protection services varies greatly by country, region, and city within E&E countries. For example, while there is at least one shelter in each E&E country, the number of beds

278. Susan Somach and JBS International, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia – 2012 Update* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2012), viii. Accessed March 20, 2014. Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pa00hqcc.pdf

279. Somach and JBS International, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia – 2012 Update*.

280. Susan Somach, *The Other Side of the Gender Equation: Gender Issues for Men in the Europe and Eurasia Region* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2011). Accessed March 20, 2014. Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnadz757.pdf

281. Somach and JBS International, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia - 2012 Update*, 34.

282. Somach and JBS International, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia – 2012 Update*, 33.

283. Elisabeth Duban and JBS International, *Toward Gender Equality in Europe and Eurasia: A Toolkit for Analysis* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2012), 100. Accessed March 20, 2014. Retrieved from: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnaea292.pdf

is insufficient, facilities and services are geared to women only, and hotlines are often neither toll-free nor operational 24 hours per day. Overall, few services are available for DV survivors, especially outside of capital cities.²⁸⁴

Legal protections and responses. All but three E&E countries have adopted specific domestic violence legislation, and most have amended criminal codes to more finely define the problem. However, evidence indicates that legal staff receive little training and most do not understand the nuances of DV legislation and procedures.²⁸⁵ The adoption of specific legal protections, such as the temporary removal of the perpetrator from the home, has been a significant regional development. However, victims are often reluctant to avail themselves of such remedies, and those who have attempted to do so have encountered issues such as delays in issuance or lax enforcement by police.²⁸⁶

284. Somach and JBS International, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia – 2012 Update*.

285. Somach and JBS International, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia – 2012 Update*. See also Elisabeth Duban, *Equal Rights, Equal Justice: Toolkit for Addressing Gender-based Violence through Rule of Law Projects* (Washington, DC: USAID, 2014).

286. Somach and JBS International, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia – 2012 Update*.

PART 2 – GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS (GSIs) FOR DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

The research already conducted in the region has not yielded a comprehensive and comparable set of data on the depth of the problem, contributing factors, or details about victims, in part because accurate and comprehensive records are not available from police or health care professionals—ill-trained personnel often fail to recognize the cause of injuries or turn a blind eye. In addition, there is a specific lack of research that focuses on men as victims or perpetrators, LGBT intimate partner violence, and violence perpetrated by partners who are not family members. While governments have little political will to conduct research or collect national statistics on DV, civil society is hamstrung by a lack of technical and financial resources when collecting, storing, and sharing data on their clients. In recent years, however, a number of surveys have been conducted by NGOs and national governments. For example, demographic health surveys (DHS) in Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Moldova, and Ukraine were conducted with an optional DV module, providing some comparable data.²⁸⁷ These data are difficult to compare across and even within countries due to the use of varying types of surveys and collection methods (including irregular collection intervals) as well as non-standardized questions or definitions of DV. The limitations of self-reporting lead to underreporting and withholding of critical details. Civil society organizations in the E&E region have substantial experience working on DV and valuable knowledge of the communities where they work. While these organizations are a significant force responding to DV, often providing psycho-social services and awareness activities, their ability to conduct comprehensive research or even monitor the impact of their own activities has been limited. As is the case with government agencies, NGOs are also not trained on standardized data collection methods.

Surveys and questionnaires used to collect data from the general population, victims, and service providers, which probe into understanding, awareness, levels of tolerance, personal knowledge of victims, and willingness to intervene or report abuse, provide a good foundation to measure progress.²⁸⁸ Client intake forms and case files from legal aid centers and health clinics that screen for DV can provide information on the type of cases and offer client profiles (age, ethnicity, and socio-economic status) to improve targeting of services geographically and determine training topics for legal aid attorneys. Records from legal aid centers offer another source of data; client in-take sheets can provide socio-demographic information to target resources where they are most needed. Public opinion surveys can provide answers to questions about societal norms and public perception of the causes of DV, revealing opportunities to focus awareness activities. If information is being collected directly from or about victims, ethics dictate that it is important to ensure their safety, maintain confidentiality, and protect their mental health.

Gender-sensitive indicators (GSI) related to the specific gender gaps and inequalities discussed above are presented below. When analyzed collectively, data indicating positive changes in the reduction of DV fulfills one of the desired overarching outcomes of the Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy.

287. There are no recent national-level data available for Montenegro or Serbia (Somach and JBS International, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia – Update 2012*, xi).

288. Yakin Ertürk, *Report of the Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women, Its Causes and Consequences: indicators on violence against women and State response, A/HRC/7/6* (New York: UN Human Rights Council, 2008). Accessed March 19, 2014. Retrieved from: <http://www.refworld.org/docid/47cd6c442.html>

Cultural Norms about DV

- Percentage of target population that views GBV as less acceptable after participating in or being exposed to USG programming (GNDR-7 standard gender indicator)
- Proportion of population targeted by USAID programming who feel that it is acceptable for men to physically, sexually, or psychologically assault their wives, girlfriends, sex partners, or other members of their households, disaggregated by sex, geographic location, and minority status
- Proportion of population targeted by USAID programming who feel that it is acceptable for women to physically, sexually, or psychologically assault their husbands, boyfriends, sex partners, or other members of their households, disaggregated by sex, geographic location, and minority status
- Ratio of men to women targeted by USAID programming who feel that it is acceptable for men to beat their wives
- Proportion of population targeted by USAID programming who believe that the victim is not to blame for domestic violence, disaggregated by sex
- Number of USAID program beneficiaries who believe that the victim is not to blame for domestic violence, disaggregated by sex
- Number USAID program beneficiaries reporting that they are likely to report incidents of DV over time, disaggregated by sex
- Proportion of population targeted by USAID programming who feel that it is acceptable for victims to seek assistance in combatting DV they experience, disaggregated by sex
- Number of USAID program beneficiaries who feel that it is acceptable for victims to seek assistance in combatting DV they experience, disaggregated by sex
- Proportion of law enforcement officials, public health workers, and social workers targeted by USAID programming who feel that it is acceptable for victims to seek assistance in combatting DV they experience, disaggregated by sex
- Number of law enforcement officials, public health workers, and social workers targeted by USAID programming who feel that it is acceptable for victims to seek assistance in combatting DV they experience, disaggregated by sex
- Number of media and/or public figures involved in USAID-supported public awareness programs

Engagement of men in DV prevention efforts as target populations and anti-DV allies

- Proportion of USAID-supported anti-DV awareness campaigns targeted at men and boys vs. women and girls
- Number of USAID-supported anti-DV awareness campaigns targeted at men and boys
- Number of male community leaders, sports figures, or celebrities who are involved in USAID-supported programs that create awareness about domestic violence and available protective measures
- Number of male community leaders, sports figures, or celebrities involved in programs that advocate for legislative changes
- Number of male community leaders, sports figures, or celebrities involved in USAID-supported programs that advocate for stricter implementation of laws that protect DV victims

DV Interventions

- Number of people reached by a USG-funded intervention providing DV services (e.g., health, legal, psychosocial counseling, shelters, hotlines, other) (can be reported against standard indicator GNDR-6)
- Number of anti-DV programs available for perpetrators
- Percentage of perpetrators who complete a treatment program designed to reduce recidivism
- Percentage of perpetrators who have exhibited no violent behavior at set time periods after treatment

Availability and coordination of services for victims

- Proportion of domestic violence victims using specialized health (including psychological) services, disaggregated by sex
- Number of domestic violence victims using legal aid services, disaggregated by sex
- Proportion of domestic violence victims using legal aid services for help with matters such as divorce, property disputes, and child and spousal support, disaggregated by sex
- Proportion domestic violence victims who are using DV support services, disaggregated by sex and type of service
- Increase in number of protective measures and services available in places that assist abused women over time
- Proportion of USAID program beneficiaries reporting that they have been supported effectively with medical services, legal aid, financial assistance, shelters, housing assistance, disaggregated by sex
- Decrease in lag time in receiving coordinated services through various mechanisms (e.g., community coordinated approach, referral mechanisms, DV councils) supported by USAID over time
- Decreased duplication of services due to increasing internal coordination and cooperation with other services providers and partners supported by USAID over time

Readiness of health and legal professionals to provide services to victims

- Number of health units that adopt protocols for managing domestic violence and working with victims with USAID assistance
- Number of health units that develop protocols to assist police with prosecution (e.g., notification of authorities, evidence collection and preservation) with USAID assistance
- Number of health unit staff trained in the protocols with USAID assistance, disaggregated by sex, health unit, and geographic location
- Number of health or legal professionals completing domestic violence training programs (in areas such as victim identification, psychology, counseling, laws and legislation) supported by USAID, disaggregated by sex and occupation—e.g., doctor, nurse, intake coordinator, paramedic, attorney, judge, prosecutor

Availability of legal remedies and extent used by victims

- Number of laws or amendments adopted with USAID support that include specific language on legal means to combat DV (can be reported against standard indicator GNDR-5)

- Number of laws adopted or amended with USAID support to include DV as a factor that affects the severity of criminal sentences (can be reported against standard indicator GNDR-5)
- Number of new legal remedies adopted with USAID support that are applicable to victims of DV (e.g., protection orders) (can be reported against standard indicator GNDR-5)
- Proportion of population targeted by USAID programming who are aware of the legal rights of victims with respect to DV, disaggregated by sex
- Number of population targeted by USAID programming who are aware of the legal rights of victims with respect to DV, disaggregated by sex
- Number of DV incidents being reported to the authorities by victims and/or witnesses, disaggregated by role of reporting person (victim vs. witness) and sex of reporting person
- Proportion of male and female DV victims reporting offenses to authorities
- Number and proportion of DV victims requesting protection orders (total and disaggregated by sex)
- Proportion of offenses that are taken up as cases by prosecutors, disaggregated by sex of victim
- Number of DV incidents reported to the police that result in arrest of perpetrator, disaggregated by sex of perpetrator
- Decrease in attrition rates over time for victims whose cases are being prosecuted²⁸⁹
- Proportion of prosecuted cases that result in convictions

289. An increase in reporting does not equate with an increase in violence. As states change or develop legislation and more services are provided, the number of reported cases increases. Attrition measures the difference in rates of reporting and the rate at which cases are decided in a court.

PART 3 - KEY RESOURCES FOR DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

Addressing gender-based violence through USAID's health programs: A guide for health sector program officers, IGWG of USAID (2006). Retrieved from: <http://www.prb.org/pdf05/gbvreportfinal.pdf>

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